The Nation.

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The Week.

While the Senate considers in secret session the treaty for annexing Hawaii, it discusses in open session the question of restricting immigration. The measure is practically the same that was vetoed by President Cleveland at the last session, but it does not contain the section which prohibited the daily crossing of the border by Canadians who work on this side of the line. The most curious feature of the matter is the fact that legislation against the coming to the United States of Portuguese and other ignorant races is advocated by many of the very Senators who are most urgent for the incorporation into the United States of the Hawaiian Islands, with their tens of thousands of Portuguese, Kanakas, Chinese, and Japanese. Next to the shame of religious journals which condone the injustice of the annexation job, is the absurdity of the statesmanship which votes at the same time to keep out ignorant foreigners individually, and to take in a mass of them.

As was expected, the Senate passed the bill on Monday by a vote of 45 to 28, all the Republicans and some of the silverites supporting it. The salient feature of the measure is the application of an educational test to all applicants for admission to this country above the age of sixteen, excepting those who are wives, parents, or grandparents of people already here. The proposed test was ability to read and write, in English or in the language of the country from which the applicant comes, a passage of the United States Constitution selected at random; but this was changed at the last moment by dropping the writing qualification, upon motion of Senator Spooner of Wisconsin, who said that he had known men to rise to eminence in this country who could read, but could not spell, punctuate, and write with accuracy. It has been generally taken for granted that the Senate bill would pass the House without much trouble, but there have been signs of popular opposition to the policy of late, which may affect the attitude of Representatives. The Germans of Chicago have started a movement against the scheme which seems to take in practically all the leaders of the race, including the editors of 16 newspapers, 47 clergymen, and almost all of the 300 German societies. They not only object to the restriction proposed as unnecessary and unjust, and a revival of the old Know-Nothing spirit, but announce that they will oppose the renomination and reëlection of all members of Congress who shall vote for it.

The old divine of the Hawaiian Literary Bureau has got himself into trouble by denouncing the Tsar and the Emperor for seizing bits of China for their own emolument, while he was acting in precisely the same manner himself with regard to Hawaii. He has consequently been called on to explain by his Presbytery. He was at first disposed to be insolent and abusive, but was admonished by the Moderator. He denied that he was engaged in any scheme of conquest. He said he was merely trying to "annex." Being asked what he meant by "annex," he said it was to do the same thing to Hawaii that several distinguished Americans wanted to do some time ago. Being asked what that was, he said it was keeping Hawaii within the sphere of our influence, and not allowing any other Power to take or occupy it. Being asked whether the islands were not in that position already, he said they were, but that a closer connection was needed to develop them. Being asked for whose benefit they were to be developed, he said it was to be for the benefit of the sons of the missionaries. Being asked if it was right for sons of missionaries to take other people's land to develop for their own benefit, he said it was, if there was no other way of making the soil very productive. Being asked if this was the sort of morality he taught his congregation, he said it was, and he saw no harm in it if what was done was done for "America." After consultation the Presbytery suspended him from preaching for the space of three months. On leaving the room, he was heard to mutter, "We'll have the islands all the same."

The Senate committee on privileges and elections have decided by a majority of one that Mr. Corbett of Oregon is not entitled to a seat in that body. This must be regarded as a very unfortunate decision, since the vote of the committee will probably be decisive in the Senate itself. Mr. Corbett was appointed a Senator by the Governor to fill a vacancy caused by the expiration of the term of Senator Mitchell and the failure of the Legislature of Oregon to meet. This was not a case of failure to elect, but of failure to organize. It appears to be settled that a mere failure of a State Legislature to elect a Senator, when it has met and balloted for that purpose, is not the "happening" of a vacancy which empowers a Governor to fill by appointment, although even in that case it would be more in consonance with the spirit of the Constitution to adopt rules whose tendency would be to keep the seats in the Senate filled instead of empty. In the Oregon case the Legislature did not organize at the proper time. In contemplation of law no Legislature existed. None exists to-day. The question, therefore, is whether a vacancy in the Senate has "happened" within the meaning of that clause of the Constitution which authorizes the Governor to appoint. It was shown that it had been the uniform practice of the Senate to admit members so appointed until the Lee Mantle case from Montana came up two or three years ago. Then the practice was reversed, and now the Senate committee decides the Corbett case in accord with the later precedent, although there are some differences which make the Corbett claim the stronger of the two. Mr. Corbett is a Republican of the sound-money type, and the loss of his vote and influence at this time is somewhat serious.

There has probably seldom been an occasion in the United States with which God, if the general estimate of his character and attributes be the true ones, had less to do than with the Hanna contest in Ohio. There has also seldom been an occasion in which, if the general estimate of his character and attributes be the true one, the Devil was more active, influential, and satisfied. There has seldom been an occasion in which the vices and defects in human character in which he most delights, more abounded and were more fruitful. Fraud, falsehood, corruption, bribery, treachery, indifference to public interests and to the character of public men, were the leading agencies in the struggle. The spectacle was altogether one which must have delighted the infernal regions. Yet when it was over, the message which it inspired Hanna to send to the President was: "God reigns, and the Republican party still lives." The comment on this of the pious President was that the victory was "not only beneficial to the country," but reflected credit on Hanna's "leadership." This incident, and the appointment of Saylor, the exposed swindler, to the consulship at Matanzas, Cuba, in spite of the remonstrances of all that is best in Philadelphia, personally made to the President, raises, in spite of us, the question, What religion is it that these men profess?

Commissioner Evans of the Pension Bureau continues to surprise the public. He began by exposing the great frauds that have been committed in the granting of pensions, and denouncing the swindling pension attorneys who are largely responsible for these frauds. He has now proceeded to apply reform methods to his own bureau by reducing

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the force employed, of his own accord. He told the appropriations committee that he could do the work as well as it had been done in the past for $100,000 a year less, by discharging 100 clerks, as "there are divisions that are overcrowded and the pay-rolls carry considerable dead lumber." Now he is going to discharge these unnecessary clerks, using the records of the whole force as the basis of his action, and dropping the most inefficient. The pension attorneys and the office-seekers are inclined to think that Mr. Evans must be crazy, while the general public is hardly less puzzled to find an official inclined to run a Government bureau as he would a private business.

One of the causes of embarrassment which always confront a new official, when he assumes charge of a Government department, is the large number of old men whom he finds in responsible positions, and who have really passed their period of usefulness. As they have grown old in the service and have accumulated no competency, to dismiss them is an act of inhumanity to which few heads of departments can bring themselves. Secretary Gage has grappled with the problem, and has established what he terms an "honor roll," to which he intends to transfer superannuated employees in the Treasury Department, They are to receive low salaries and do light work. Younger and more active men, who now actually do the work of the aged clerks, are to receive the rank and pay which formerly the latter enjoyed. This is a frank admission of existing conditions and a laudable attempt to mitigate them, with a saving to the Government; but Mr. Gage has already admitted that a difficulty which he finds it hard to overcome, arises from the importunities with which the friends of the superannuated clerks beset him, to prevent his carrying out his purpose. Even if he is successful, he has merely set a good example, which neither his colleagues nor his successors will be under the necessity of following. The importunities which he may resist, they may easily succumb to. There can be no satisfactory settlement of the question until a law has been passed to cover it.

Such a law was proposed to the last Congress, but never came up for consideration. It was a simple scheme by which the employees in the classified service might provide for their own superannuation with a saving to the Government and with benefit to themselves. Under it a small percentage—not more than 2 per cent., and eventually less—was to be withheld from each person's salary, and the sum thus acquired was to constitute a fund for the retirement, upon three-fourths pay, of minor officials and clerks who had served the Government many years, and had reached an advanced age. It was estimated by the friends of this measure that the fund would be so large that it would permit of the repayment of the money he had paid in, to any one who might separate himself from the service, thus making it also in a measure a savings fund. The advantages of this scheme to the Government are obvious. It would be rid at once of its civil pensioners. The old men now encumbering its offices would be supplanted by younger and more efficient men. There would be quicker promotion and a greater movement of new life in the service. There would be opportunity for many more appointments, and the lists of those eligible for appointment would be relieved to some extent of their present congested condition. Strange as it may seem, this proposal met with some opposition from the clerks themselves, on the ground that they were unwilling that any portion of their pay should be withheld from them; but it is not probable that the opposition was extensive, or that it would not disappear in the light of intelligent discussion.

Monday's report of the Bureau of Statistics on the foreign trade of the United States during December completes the remarkable record for the calendar year 1897. Taking the twelve months' total, the comparisons are decidedly the most extraordinary in this country's history. In 1896, it will be remembered, the outward trade of the United States ran for the first time above one billion dollars; but the total merchandise exports for last year exceed those of 1896 by no less than $93,292,278, which is a gain of more than 9 per cent. As compared with other years when the country's export trade was regarded as exceptional, it is interesting to observe that the trade of 1897 exceeds by $128,000,000 that of 1891, and runs $209,000,000 beyond 1880. Taken along with the heavy shipments of 1896, this extraordinary increase marks in many respects the progress of a new era in foreign trade. That some peculiar and not necessarily permanent agricultural conditions have played an important part in the increase during both of the two last years is sufficiently well known, but it has also been manifest that the great expansion in American exports has been limited to no branch of industry or production. That this invasion of the preserves of older manufacturing states should have evoked such warnings as Count Goluchowski's speech to the Austrian Delegation last November is not surprising. But the "prompt counteracting measures" urged on Europe by the Count against the "destructive competition with transoceanic countries" are no very probable solution of the question. In the present, as in the past, it is the United States itself which must fetter or unloose American industry.

The total imports for December, it is to be observed, decreased $7,465,000 from those for December, 1896. This decrease happened in the imports free of duty; but in the dutiable imports alone the gain over 1896 was only $1,248,000, and it will be remembered that in December, 1896, such importations had fallen to by far the lowest level in a dozen years. December was the fifth month since the enactment of the Dingley tariff; it would appear, therefore, that if the reasoning of the tariff-builders of 1897 was accurate, "anticipatory importations" ought by this time to have been in a reasonable degree consumed. Yet here is a wholly insignificant increase during December, supplemented, during the opening fortnight of January, by foreign merchandise receipts at New York city smaller by 20 per cent. than those of the same period in 1897. Everybody knows that worshippers of the protection fetish are habitually blind to facts and figures; but, as Senator Aldrich proved last year, there are protectionists who still retain the use of their reasoning faculties. Have these men nothing to say on the question of the revenue?

The discussion over the reduction of wages in the cotton mills of New England is bringing out some interesting revelations. Ex-Congressman Crapo of New Bedford makes the important statement that the present situation ought to have been foreseen and provided against last summer. "By far the wisest thing to have done," he says, "would have been to shut down the mills in the summer, when it would have been least hard for the operatives." Mr. Crapo believes that the wisest plan now might be a general shut-down until consumption has reduced the accumulated stock of goods, but he considers a general agreement to do this on the part of the manufacturers out of the question, while "the reduction of wages is likely to force the issue, and by a general strike the desired curtailment will be brought about." In other words, the poor operatives must be driven to strike in midwinter as the means of securing a shut-down which the employers recognized was inevitable as long ago as last summer, but refused then to order.

Mr. Crapo holds that the tariff has nothing to do with the situation. He says that "we [the manufacturers] haven't any fault to find with the present tariff," which is an improvement on the Wilson tariff, and that even the Wilson tariff "took care of us better than the previous tariff." There could hardly be a more convincing demon-

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stration of the humbug of the claims that have always been made for the tariff as an essential of prosperity. In the campaign of 1896 the employees in New England manufactories were assured that the enactment of another McKinley tariff would put an end to the existing depression. A man would have been denounced as a free-trader and a liar who should have suggested that no tariff, even if the manufacturers "hadn't any fault to find with it," could insure the successful operation of the cotton mills. As for a prophecy that within six months after the enactment of such a tariff 100,000 operatives would have to stand a 10 per cent. reduction of wages or strike, there was not a Republican organ or stump-speaker but would have denounced the idea as utterly incredible.

Mr. Platt has given the amateurs of the new Legislature, who supposed they had got into his good graces, a lesson in the science of government. They helped him to get his man into the speakership of the Assembly, with the confident expectation that good chairmanships of committees would be apportioned to them as rewards for their timely aid. When the committees were announced, however, they discovered that Mr. Platt's views of their deserts had not coincided with their own. In some way or other, there had been a radical misunderstanding. Mr. Hill of Erie, for example, who had it in his power, when the Legislature met, to secure the election of an anti-Platt man to the speakership, and thus make possible an organization of the Assembly which no boss could control, but who had supported Platt's candidate and elected him because he thought that by so doing he should obtain for himself the chairmanship of the committee on canals, was amazed when the committees were announced to find that Mr. Taylor of Oswego had that chairmanship, while he was assigned to the head of the committee on banks. Similar disappointment was the lot of the two "Independents" from Brooklyn, who joined at the last moment with Mr. Hill in putting Platt's man into the Speaker's chair. They got no chairmanships whatever, and only minor places on unimportant committees. This treatment would have been hard enough to bear of itself, but the Boss aggravated it by allowing the real Independents who refused to go into his caucus, and who refused to vote for his man after he was nominated for Speaker, to receive quite as good places as those assigned to the Independents who yielded to his blandishments.

There has been a good deal of unnecessary comment expended on the Mayor's denunciation of the city's gift of land to the new Public Library. He ought to be thanked for his talk instead of being blamed. The hardest task good people have had to perform in this city has been to convince the majority which voted for Low, Tracy, and George, that Tammany is not a political party, though it goes through the motions and puts on the airs of one. It is a band of ignorant, poor, and utterly corrupt men, organized and led by cunning leaders, somewhat more knowing than themselves, and has for its object simply the seizure of the revenues of the city and their use, under the forms of law, to enrich themselves and support their families. They care no more for literature, art, science, and education than the forces who entered Rome under Alaric. They are after "the stuff" simply. It is a help, therefore, in bringing home this knowledge to the public, to have Croker denounce the Board of Education, and Mayor Van Wyck roar against libraries, and Grady against the Chamber of Commerce. They are all proving that Tammany is really a flood of modern barbarism beating on one spot, against the things which constitute civilization and national progress. The more of such talk the better.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's declaration that there shall be no closing of Chinese ports is, since Canning's famous acknowledgment of the independence of the Spanish-American provinces, the finest declaration made by any British Minister. Open ports, free to all the nations of the earth, are something worth fighting for. The British Minister is a splendid contrast to the two "war lords" who are wandering round the earth seeking ports to close, markets to monopolize, and commerce for themselves only. It is a lucky thing for civilization that England has enough "sea power" to make her declarations good, and it is a melancholy thing that we who, a century ago, stood far in advance of her in advocacy of everything that vindicated the "sacred rights of man," should now lag behind her as a friend of the race. If we took a port to-day, we should promptly put about 60 per cent. duty on all imports, search passengers' clothing for trousers and chemises bought abroad, tear sealskin jackets off the backs of women, and, in fact, do everything we could, short of violence, to make human intercourse difficult and disagreeable, to diminish the advantage of steam and electricity, and make travel seem immoral.

The Government of India has decided to issue gold notes. The demand for rupee bills in London to meet payments which English merchants have to make in India, has carried the price of the bills up to 16d. per rupee, which is the par of exchange as fixed by the Government when the mints were closed to silver in 1893. Any advance above 16d. will carry gold from England to India; but as it takes a long time to move gold between those two countries, the Government proposes to issue its notes in Calcutta on receipt of telegraphic notice of the sale of council drafts in London, and deliver them to the payee in India. The notes will be redeemable in gold, but the demand for money in India is so strong that they will probably remain in circulation till the gold which they represent arrives, and even longer. This step points the way to a gold basis for the currency of India, the present currency being on an irredeemable silver basis. The silver rupee is now worth fourpence more than the silver contained in it would bring in the bullion market.

The rioting in Paris indicates only two things—French sensitiveness on the subject of "spies," and French dislike of the Jews. Why Celtic races are so suspicious about spies and traitors is a subject which has been much discussed, for Ireland is, in this matter, a match for France. Nearly all Irish misfortunes are due to some kind of treachery. There is nearly always a man who "sould the pass" in any political movement and an informer in every conspiracy. In France nearly all defeats have had a traitor who made terms with the enemy. Unluckily, this watching for men who try to damage the country from personal motives does not seem all delusion. Allegiance to any particular government sits lightly on Frenchmen, and any government, even if a Boulanger sets it up, is apt to take the place of the country with some party or faction. The Jew hatred is probably due to the enormous money power acquired by the Jews in a country which is wanting in the commercial and banking instinct and has few large fortunes. The indifference of the French democracy to what is called the "haute finance" and to the larger commerce, has naturally left a vacuum in French society which as keen a money-making race as the Jews has stepped in to fill. The result is that the bulk of French capital is, for all great enterprises, handled or controlled by Jews. The French prefer small savings, retail trade, literature, and military adventure to large money-making operations, and they naturally dislike the men who venture where they fear to tread. They blow the steam off, when the pressure becomes too severe, by "manifestations," and fastening on somebody as the personification of the hated thing, whatever it is. Our contrast to them in the matter of excitability is something curious. Were they exposed to one-half of the governmental failures and scandals under which we sit meekly, they would pass most of their nights in the streets, yelling, distributing "coups de bâton," and recommending that somebody should be spat upon.

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THE LATEST HAWAIIAN PHASE.

The Hawaiian Literary Bureau has turned its attention from true religion to sugar. It found that the argument that the Hawaiian sugar would undersell the home beet-sugar in case of annexation, was making an impression in the Senate, so it dropped the Gospel like a hot potato, and has come down to business. It will not rely on sugar any more, but on "general productiveness." It says:

"Sugar production there [in Hawaii] may indeed thrive, but not by underselling of beet-sugar produced by farmers in this country. So true is this that the ablest advocates of annexation who have given the subject careful attention, no longer urge it as the acquisition of a cheap-sugar farm, but on account of the great potential productiveness of the islands in other respects, and far more because of the importance to the national defence, and especially to the defence of the Pacific Coast, of the complete control of the islands which annexation alone can secure."

You see the ablest advocates of annexation were at one time urging it as the acquisition of "a cheap-sugar farm," but, finding that this was not what was wanted, they now urge it as the acquisition of a dear-sugar farm. Having tried to sell their dog as fat, but finding that what the purchaser wants is a lean dog, they say their dog "is not so darned fat." So the islands, if acquired, will not produce sugar so cheap after all, but just cheap enough. It is its "potential productiveness" that constitutes its attraction. The Gospel does not say that you must not conquer and annex weak peoples at all. What it says is that you must not conquer and annex them if they are not "potentially productive," or if you do not want them for some purpose of your own. Therefore, although the Gospel covers the case of China and the Asiatics generally, it does not cover "potentially productive" Polynesians. But Hawaii is "potentially productive," and we want it for the defence of our Pacific Coast; therefore, we ought to take it against the will of the people.

This seems to us pretty clear as an argument, but it would unfortunately justify fully nine-tenths of man's thefts committed on his brother man, because, when man takes anything unlawfully from his fellow-man, it is almost always owing to the thief's firm conviction that he needs it for his own comfort and enjoyment, and that it will promote both. The defence argument, we fear, will need even more elucidation than the sugar argument. Hawaii is 2,000 miles away from the Pacific Coast. There are only two ways in which an island at that distance can protect a coast. The first is by being towed and anchored so near the coast that it can cover a portion of the coast with the guns of its batteries. The other is by drawing off from the coast the ships and men which were going to attack it. If we mean to use Hawaii for coast defence, therefore, we must either move it to the neighborhood of San Francisco or else make it so attractive that an enemy proposing to attack San Francisco would drop that enterprise and sail away to Hawaii.

But it is quite evident, and has been frequently pointed out, that, in order to have this move of his really benefit us, he would have to find a fleet of ours waiting there to receive him when he came. If we had no fleet there, he would land and take possession of the islands, and probably join the natives in disgusting heathen practices. This fleet, however, would probably have to be taken away from the defence of our coast and would have to fight the enemy off Hawaii. Were it defeated and sunk, the enemy would make straight for our coast again and lay it waste. So that to make the islands really effective as a defence, we should have to have two fleets, one to defend the islands and one to defend the coast. None of the defence arguments, however, assumes the existence of more than one American fleet in the Pacific, which seems to us a fatal dialectical error. Strict logic requires two fleets.

Nor is this all. We have the authority of Senator Frye, who spoke on this subject in the Senate on Thursday, for saying that we could not "control the Nicaragua Canal" without annexing Hawaii. Now, the only way that we know of for controlling a canal, is to have a fleet at each end to prevent the enemy from getting into it, and sinking in it impediments to navigation. This would need two fleets more, unless the islands can be made to protect the Pacific end by being moved nearer, so that their batteries would cover it. In this way, one fleet would do both for the islands and one end of the canal, but three fleets would still be required in order to protect both the canal and Hawaii—one for the coast and two for the canal; for we presume it will hardly be maintained that if the islands were moved down towards Nicaragua they would continue to afford protection to the Californian Coast.

There is another argument which we confess we cannot meet so easily as these two. It emanates from Mr. Thomas J. Mackey of South Carolina, who has been retained as counsel for the annexationists at Washington. He says, what everybody knew, "that British agents are actively at work to defeat annexation." Of course they are. What region is exempt from the devilish industry of these agents? But he draws attention also to something more important. He shows that "Juneau, the main depot from which supplies are distributed in Alaska, is 500 miles nearer to Hawaii than it is to San Francisco." Well, if we now reject this offer made by the Hawaiian Government, what will happen? Why, "England," in the Mackey judgment, "will secure the islands." But why? "Because their government is controlled by an English-speaking race." What will England do then, when she holds "the key of the Pacific"? Why, she will "absolutely shut off supplies for Alaska, and secure that whole region, with its vast mineral resources." How will that come about? It will come about because the Americans in Alaska, being thus "threatened with starvation," must, in case of war, "seek British protection." What else will follow from the British possession of Hawaii? "Her acquisition of Alaska if not California." What, then, would be the only way in which we could save California? By "a series of fortifications" which, in Mackey's "judgment as an engineer," "would cost the Government not less than $60,000,000." It is evident there are going to be terrible times in the Pacific. Private advices from London satisfy us that Mackey does not tell half the truth. Salisbury, Balfour, and Chamberlain are all lying low, but they lie on maps of the North Pacific.

THE LAST STEP IN CORRUPTION.

A very disagreeable sensation has been caused by the recent coming to light of two pieces of governmental incompetence or jobbery. One of them affects the navy, the other the army. The more the Brooklyn dry-dock is investigated, the more flagrant the fraud of it appears. Badly planned, badly built, badly inspected, it is about the most serious break-down in the Navy Department that we have seen. Still graver are the charges now made public by the War Department against Capt. Carter. Hard on to $3,000,000 is the sum of which he and his confederates are accused of robbing the Government in connection with the public works near Savannah. True or false, the charges have given a serious shock to public confidence.

The first feeling is one of alarm. Our national defence, our national safety, seems endangered. We understand better the French hysterics, as we have been accustomed to call them, over their army scandals. If our dry-docks threaten collapse, how can we be sure that our ships are sound? Why should Government inspection in the case of building ships be more efficient than in that of building docks? In the latter instance it has proved worthless or fraudulent; how do we know that the armor on our battle-ships is not full of blow-holes, that our turrets will revolve as they should, our guns not explode at the first fire? Mr. Roosevelt has lately sounded a note of warning about some of our men-of-war; their batteries are not what they should be, he says, and he justly remarks that if any "disaster" should happen to one of them, after all the money spent in their building, the effect on the public mind would be very bad. Already the effect is bad, both upon the

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public and upon Congress. All these revelations, coming one upon the heels of another, have certainly imperilled the big navy appropriations. Congressmen are irritable and suspicious on that subject, not unnaturally, and the fiercest Jingo has an inward dread of going to war, even with Spain, until some guarantee can be had that our ships are seaworthy, sound, and capable of inflicting more damage upon the enemy than upon their own crews.

But the uneasy sense of insecurity goes further than this. The country shivers to see public corruption spreading into regions which it thought certainly immune. We have become accustomed, in our good-natured, laughing way, to the spectacle of corrupt Congressmen. We even joke about the "exceptional business opportunities" which a man like Quay must have enjoyed in public life, to enable him, without a profession to supplement his $5,000 salary, in a few years to be able to spend money like a millionaire—a discreet gift to a church being, of course, now and then thrown in. Seats in the Senate bought like seats in the Stock Exchange, and for very much the same reasons, and Representatives spending more than their salaries on their election, we have come to look upon without special wonder. But we have fondly believed that at least two branches of the public service were above suspicion. The army, offering an honorable and secure professional career, filled with graduates of our fine military school—surely that must be beyond the smutch of jobbery. The navy, more than ever in the public eye during the last few years as the home of gallant gentlemen, with the country's honor peculiarly in their keeping—impossible that corruption should stain its whiteness! But here are the cruel charges afloat; here are the suspect officers of either arm about to be brought to trial; and the American people feels that one of its last resources, one of its last treasures, is slipping away from it.

The strange thing is that we have not seen how all this was inevitable from the first. Corruption can no more be stayed in one part of the body politic than can cancer be confined to a single point in a vital organ. To spread is the fated nature of either. Naval officers and military men have no supernatural gift of virtue. They are mortal men, subject to like passions with Congressmen and heads of departments and bosses. If all the public world about them is filled with talk of wealth and its power—brute wealth and brute power—if every other official they meet is eager about the good things to be had out of a Government position, they cannot be expected to go through all this pitch undefiled. Indeed, there has long been plenty of evidence that "the jingle of the guinea" was coming to have more power over some officers in the army and navy than the opportunities of their profession. We do not speak of bribery outright; but how many officers have resigned to take service with shipbuilders and armor-plate manufacturers? How regular a thing is it for ex-Secretaries of the Navy, and ex-Assistant Secretaries, to become "counsel" for naval contractors? The immense money-stake which these contractors have in military appropriations has been large enough not merely to "retain" Congressmen and lobbyists of influence on account of their former official position, but to detach many an ambitious officer from the service. This has been well known. What distresses the nation now is to find reason to dread that officers still in the service have sold themselves for money.

If they have, they have only taken the last step—the legitimate and inevitable last step—in corruption. The technical, the professional, branches of the public service cannot for ever escape the creeping disease that is paralyzing all the others. China is the great example of how the evil works. The true "Chinese system," which the opponents of civil-service reform ignorantly cite, is simply their own corrupt system made perfect. In China every office is bought, every official steals, every dollar of taxes collected gets into the public treasury as only fifty cents. Well, what was the result of this corruption of civil China upon military China? The war with Japan told the story. Many a provincial governor, when called upon for the troops for which he had been drawing money from Pekin, sent down a lot of sweepings from the slums, armed with bludgeons and worn-out rifles, with no equipment and rotten ammunition. The money to arm and support soldiers had all been stolen. Our worthless dry-docks, our fraudulent public works, warn us how swiftly we are going the same way. That we can no longer count securely upon the purity of army and navy is the logical result of being no longer able to count upon the purity of House and Senate and Legislature. What we see the beginnings of is simply corruption bringing forth its perfect work.

CURTAILING THE POSTAL SERVICE.

The order which comes from Washington to reduce the postal service in New York city and to discharge sixty-five letter-carriers in order to save money, invites attention once more to the kind of economy that prevails at the national capital. It adds somewhat to the force of what we have to say that the cities of Boston and Philadelphia are to have their postal facilities cut down in the same proportion. Thus the city which contributes the largest sum to the postal revenues, and the two cities which, with one exception, contribute the next largest sums, are to be deprived in part of a service which has grown up naturally and has been found by successive postmasters to be necessary to an efficient handling of the mails; and this is to happen because a particular appropriation is short by the sum of $100,000 and Congress refuses or neglects to make up the deficiency. This, it should be added, is a government which, ten or twelve years ago, was collecting a surplus revenue of $100,000,000 per annum, and which actually passed a sweeping measure to reduce its income.

The country is richer than it was in 1887. Why is it necessary to deprive any portion of the people of their ordinary and accustomed mail facilities? This is a question which the cities affected by the reduction will wonderingly and perhaps angrily ask when they come to vote next fall. It will not be a sufficient answer to say that Congress refused to make an appropriation for the service. Congress will be the very thing that the voters will have to deal with at that time. It would not be at all surprising if every Republican seat in this city should be emptied at that election. If so, the result would be due not so much to the inconveniences suffered by individuals in the lessening of the number of mail deliveries, as to the evidence of incompetency in the management of public affairs, and to the sympathy excited by the discharge of hard-working letter-carriers whose services are really needed. It is not so much the frequency of deliveries in the up-town districts that will be missed as the congestion of matter at the general and branch post-offices that will be caused.

The science and the resources of the Post-office in all the large cities are tasked to prevent an accumulation of matter, for when once a blockade takes place the postmaster labors in vain to get rid of it. The service is like a river full of floating ice. If a gorge once forms, the accumulation in the rear heaps itself up higher and higher, and eventually overflows its banks or bursts with disastrous results. The need of frequent deliveries results from this pressure in the rear rather than from eagerness on the part of the inhabitants of the up-town districts for prompt service. We are a long way behind the cities of equal importance in Europe in the matter of local delivery. The whole of London is better served than any part of New York, and now it is proposed to reduce our service by one-fourth in the districts above Forty-second Street.

Supposing it to be necessary that this government, that was rolling in wealth ten years ago and striving eagerly for means to reduce its income, should now find means to economize, where should it begin? The very last place to save money should be the postal facilities of

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the country; or if there must be a saving there, it should be in the branch of the service which is clearly an abuse and a fraud upon the department. The Loud bill, which has been before Congress three years, proposes to cut off certain excrescences which involve a needless expense to the Government of $10,000,000 to $15,000,000 per annum. Yet that bill was defeated because powerful private interests were affected by it. These private interests kept a lobby at Washington. They had "pulls" with Senators and Representatives. The public, who foot these unnecessary bills, do not send anybody to Washington to represent their common interests in a special but only in a general way, and so the abuse which the Loud bill seeks to eradicate goes on, and the parasites who fatten on the postal revenues are undisturbed. And now when the beggarly deficiency of $100,000 exists in the appropriation for a single year, it must be taken out of the legitimate and paying service of three large cities.

If we cast our eyes outside of the Post-Office Department itself, what a waste of money do we behold in many directions. The fact that our military expenses, without having any army, but including pensions, exceed those of the countries which have the largest armies in the world, including also their pensions, is the first anomaly that presents itself. Next come river-and-harbor bills and public-building jobs, which have been repeated so many times that even the barest allusion to them sickens the reader. Just now we are spending $100,000 to survey a canal in a foreign country, and the officer in charge of it writes that he wants $100,000 more. Our drydocks are not waterproof and we must have them rebuilt, or depend on Great Britain when we want to dock our warships. And now, too, we are seriously considering the annexation of a group of islands in the Pacific Ocean to fortify and defend which will cost an enormous sum of money, whereas those islands in their present estate and condition need no fortification, no navy, no civil list, no expenditure on our part except the salaries of a minister and a secretary of legation. Information has just leaked out that we have made a cash offer for the Danish West India Islands, to be followed by more fortifications and civil lists and miscellaneous expenditure. But we cannot continue the profligacy of our mail service. We must cut down New York $40,000, and make the rest of the saving in Boston and Philadelphia. Surely this is a great country, and it is growing more famous every day.

DEATH TO HARMONY.

It is the avowed purpose of the Republicans of this city who are forming an organization in opposition to Platt's machine, to extend their organization throughout the State, and to call an early convention in the autumn for the nomination of a full State ticket. Of course, this amounts to a declaration of war upon the regular party machine, and is, therefore, absolutely fatal to "harmony within the party." The immediate effect of the revelation of this purpose was to call forth from Mr. Platt a bitter denunciation of the promoters of the movement, as traitors who were planning the ruin of their party and inviting national disaster by taking the first step towards turning the country over to Bryanism in 1900. He maintained that the election of a new Congress this fall, with the currency question as the dominant issue, made it the duty of all Republicans who wish to save the country from the silver standard to stand together without regard to factional differences, for if Congress were to be lost through quarrels in New York, then Bryan would be certain to come in in 1900, and national ruin would follow.

This line of argument did not occur to Mr. Platt when he insisted upon running his family candidate for Mayor last November, thus putting into the hands of the Democratic party and the Bryanites the most stupendous mass of patronage any political party had ever been able to secure. Nothing that can happen in this State this year can either undo that incomparable public crime, or lead to a new political disaster which will approach it in magnitude. It is clear perception of this fact which leads the Republicans who are engaged in the new movement to scoff at Mr. Platt's appeal. At last they have reached the point where the old "harmony" bugaboo does not affect them. They can listen to it without qualms, and even jeer at it. This is a great step in advance, and if they can maintain their present attitude, without fear of consequences, and even in the face of defeat, we may in the near future escape from our present ignominy of "Bossocracy," so far as the State is concerned.

Jacob Worth, whose observations on politics always bear the hall-mark of an expert, and are consequently luminous and instructive, declares it to be his opinion that a combination of the forces in both parties which are disgusted with bossism might carry the State. He says, in a recent interview in the Brooklyn *Eagle*, that "there is no doubt now that all over the State, among Democrats and Republicans, there is a well-founded belief that Croker and Platt have been playing into each other's hands—playing a game of heads I win, tails you lose, with the people"—and suggests that there is a way of beating both of them, which he outlines as follows:

"Suppose that the Republicans and Democrats of this State who wish to prevent both Platt and Croker from gaining State control should decide to hold a conference for the purpose of calling a State convention. That could be done. And a ticket could be named which would probably beat the machine candidates. The high-handed methods of Platt and Croker have disgusted great masses of voters irrespective of party. In the light of what has happened since election day, Seth Low, or the cause for which he stood, put it either way you want to, is stronger to-day in the State than ever."

Whether such an effort were successful or not, it should be made, for through it lies our only hope of relief. So long as we have these two bosses in full possession of the machinery of the two great parties we are deprived of all alternative. We can turn from one only to fall into the arms of the other. That they worked together in the late city campaign no intelligent man can doubt after the way in which Tammany has distributed the offices since coming into power. They cannot be defeated separately, but must be crushed together. It will be said that we tried to crush both of them last November and failed. That is true, but it is also true that we succeeded in polling against them the largest vote ever given to a purely nonpartisan candidate, and that in order to win they were forced to reveal the fact that they were working together. Furthermore, what Mr. Worth says about the State as a more advantageous battleground upon which to fight them, is indisputable. No State in the Union has anything like so large a body of independent voters as we have here. Their existence has been shown repeatedly when a plurality of 75,000 or even 150,000 on one side in one election has given place to a plurality of like size upon the other side in a subsequent election.

This great independent body, numbering fully 100,000, has been rendered virtually powerless by the boss leadership of the two parties. Nothing desirable can be accomplished by turning from one to the other. An opportunity to support a ticket pledged to destroy bossism would be hailed with joy by these voters, and their forces would be reinforced by many thousands of other voters from both parties who have remained in the party ranks most unwillingly, and only because they could not help matters by going outside. How far this disgust with Plattism and Crokerism extends no man can say, but that it is deep and formidable is unquestionable. It is time that a fair test of its strength was made, and this is an excellent year in which to make it. Let us see whether or not the people of the State care to have, not merely a reputable government, but a constitutional government of the kind their fathers established. We have no doubt about their disposition in this matter, but it may be that the power of the bosses would be sufficient on the first trial of strength over it to defeat the real wishes of the people. The possibility of defeat must be taken into account by the

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leaders of a movement for freedom, and the fight should be undertaken with the determination of continuing it till victory is won. Let us have an end of "harmony" for ever, in order that we may get in its place simple, plain, popular government, for it is as certain as fate that we cannot gain the latter until we have rid ourselves of the former.

THE EFFECT OF AMERICAN ON ENGLISH POLITICS.

LONDON, January, 1898.

The course of events in America has for more than thirty years exercised an influence which has been little noticed, but has been for all that important, on English public opinion, and therefore indirectly on English politics.

Forty or fifty years ago, it is true, it was far otherwise. In 1855 Lord Shaftesbury made this note in his Diary: "Just heard that Palmerston designs to make some lawyers 'Peers for life'—a step as pernicious as it is specious. It must eventually, and not remotely, destroy the hereditary House of Lords. It will begin by making us the 'French Chamber' and end by making us the 'American Senate.'" These words have in 1898 a touch of pathetic stupidity. Palmerston was the most Conservative Premier who has held office since 1832; his scheme for life peerages was as statesmanlike as it was Conservative. Lord Shaftesbury was, as regards high public spirit and intellectual capacity, a model English nobleman, yet Lord Shaftesbury opposed a salutary reform for the most inappropriate of reasons. He feared that the House of Lords might be transformed into an American Senate, and did not know that the Senate of 1855 exercised in the United States greater authority than has been wielded in England by the House of Lords since the Revolution of 1688. If Palmerston's reform could have endowed their lordships with anything like the weight of the Senate, English Conservatism would have obtained a new lease of power. The point, however, which for my present purpose is important is not Lord Shaftesbury's political blunder, but his ignorance about the United States. In the fifties America represented even to Englishmen of Conservative tendencies, whether they called themselves Conservatives or Whigs, nothing but a typical example of democratic vulgarity and rowdyism; and respectable politicians denounced with equal fluency, ignorance, and sincerity the Americanization of English institutions. 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' in which one may even now trace a singular combination of commonplace satire with flashes of the keen insight given only to a man of genius, had impressed the ten-pound householders and their leaders with an utter disbelief in American habits and American ways of thought. Nor did the Manchester school, which was constantly taunted with the desire to Americanize England, show any very profound insight into the conditions of the Republic for whose institutions Cobden and Bright entertained a sort of platonic affection based mainly on the idea that the absence of a court, of an hereditary nobility, and of a standing army must in themselves secure for American citizens the blessing of good and, at any rate, of cheap government. A small body of thinkers, of whom John Stuart Mill was the typical and noble representative, tried to draw serious political lessons from American experience. But they looked at America through the eyes of Tocqueville; they accepted his pictures of local government in New England as a fair representation of the blessings conferred by local self-government on every State in the Union; they received with far too little examination his dogma that democracy in America, as indeed throughout the whole world, meant the supremacy of a uniform public opinion, which kept down at once the glaring vices which middle-class respectability reprobates, and the eminent virtues or talents which mediocrity envies. They did not know that Tocqueville, while nominally describing democracy in America, was really occupied in analyzing democracy in France, and that both the circumstances of the time when for a few months he visited the United States, and his own excessive tendency towards ingenious generalization, blinded him to the growth of the party system which has given a peculiar turn to American political institutions. The one class of Englishmen who were in truth keenly interested in American affairs were the English Abolitionists, and by a curious fatality the existence of the irrepressible conflict between slavery and freedom vitiated in England all speculations about the condition of the United States; and this in two different ways. Conservatives could plausibly deride Republicanism which countenanced the maintenance of slavery, and Democrats could believe, and did believe, that every defect in the public life of America was attributable to the existence of the Slave Power, and that Republican virtue was corrupted by the accidental and unnatural alliance between Democrats and slave-owners. If there was corruption at New York or a tone of braggadocio was assumed by the statesmen at Washington, the true cause of these faults was the influence of the Slave Power.

It was not till the outbreak of the Civil War that it became apparent how close might be the connection between the fortunes of the United States and the course of politics in England. On such a matter as this every man must speak from his own, and, therefore, from a very limited experience. But to the present writer it is as certain as any event known to him by recollection can be, that in England the War of Secession produced a greater division of feeling and a far greater amount of political bitterness than any occurrence, foreign or domestic, which has happened during the last fifty years. Some of the reasons for this excitement were trivial; there never was a political conflict which supplied partisans on either side with such an infinity of weapons with which to irritate opponents. The Conservative who rejoiced in the victories of Lee was called the defender of slavery. The Liberal who was cheered by any Northern success was asked what had become of his love for nationalities, and how he reconciled the subjugation of the Southern States with his respect for the voice of the People. But though accidental circumstances enhanced the bitterness due to a fundamental difference of convictions and sentiments, there was, as any one can now see, nothing unnatural and little that was blameworthy in the intensity of the party spirit aroused in England by the Civil War in America. Men saw in it a life-and-death struggle between Conservatism and Democracy. The early triumphs of the South were held by thousands of Englishmen to be the breakdown of popular government. The dictum attributed to Carlyle, "It is the dirtiest chimney which ever got set on fire," might have been taken as the watchword of English Conservatism. While the contest lasted the spirit of reform or of change was practically suspended in England. Nor is it a hazardous conjecture that had the seceding States made good their independence, the democratic movement in England and perhaps in Europe might have been arrested for a generation. The sympathy with the Northern States, which to the present writer appears now, as it appeared then, to be a sympathy with the cause of justice and of progress, was among English democrats the effect rather of instinct than of reflection. Bright, Mill, the artisans of Lancashire, the whole body of sympathizers with the North, backed the cause of the democracy. Just hatred for slavery gave a touch of religious fervor to their political enthusiasm; but at the basis of their sentiment and their action lay the conviction that on the issue of the war was staked the possibility of democratic progress, and their previsions were justified by the event. The surrender of Richmond was the victory of democracy in England. In 1859 Bright had in vain pressed upon the nation a reform of Parliament based upon the extension of the right of voting to householders. His oratory had kindled no popular emotion. Lord Palmerston jeered at him for "starring it in the provinces." He himself, it is believed, confessed that he found he was "flogging a dead horse." Some years later he was able to tell the workingmen of England that the negroes would get the suffrage before the English operative. As an argument in favor of parliamentary reform this statement "left something," as the French say, "to be desired," but as rhetoric it was conclusive. In 1867 the Reform Bill was passed which introduced the system of household suffrage into the boroughs, and made certain that it would within a few years be introduced into the counties of England. Between 1859 and 1867 the War of Secession had made patent the power of democracy.

By a change of opinion which appears at first sight paradoxical if not ridiculous, Conservatives who in the middle of this century, and indeed after the middle of the century was well passed, dreaded nothing so much as the Americanization of English institutions, began some ten or twelve years ago to see much that was admirable in the Constitution of the United States. The writer who represented this alteration of view was Sir Henry Maine. His 'Popular Government' exactly represents a phase of Conservative sentiment. Nor is there anything really absurd in the altered attitude of English Conservatism. While democracy could be held, so to speak, at arm's length, it was natural that every man who wished to keep the social and political state of England in the main unchanged, should object to all measures of which the object was to imitate the democratic institutions of America. Now that the reign of democracy has begun, it is equally natural that Conservative thinkers should commend anything in American institutions, such, for example, as the rigid character of the Constitution of the United States, the limited power of every American Legislature, or the authority vest-

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ed in the hands of the judges, which hampers, or is supposed to hamper, the rash action of the people. This at any rate is exactly what has taken place: the Conservatism of America recommends itself to English Conservatives. Nor is it the institutions alone of the United States which are now admired by Englishmen whose fathers for fifty years held up the example of the transatlantic Republic as a warning against the perils of Democratic Republicanism. In Europe democracy makes, in appearance at least, for Socialism, but the spirit, not only of the American Constitution, but of American society, has, so far as outsiders can judge, hitherto been the spirit of individualism. The rights of property are the rights of individuals; men who believe that the rights of property are in peril reasonably feel that they have much to learn from a country which has prospered under a constitution designed by men who had no tendency towards any form of Socialism, and who firmly believed in the right of each individual to use his own powers for the attainment of his own happiness.

That, again, the success of the Federal system in America reconciled many Englishmen to the proposal for the establishment of Home Rule in Ireland, is so patent to any one who has followed the stream of English politics that the subject does not require more than an allusion. What is better worth notice, because it has excited less attention, is the way in which the failure or success in the United States of the attempts to retain or establish good local government in great cities, is certain to react—I might almost say is at the present moment reacting—upon English opinion as to the solution to be found of one of the most difficult problems presented to modern statesmanship. This problem is, shortly, how to keep up good government in towns, and especially in large towns, such as London, at a time when it is generally felt by the mass of the electors that the proper source of authority is the will of the people expressed by a popular vote. It is easy enough to say, "Establish a system of local government." The fatal objection to this solution is that real local government cannot exist in any place where the persons who are supposed to govern themselves will not, and, to speak plainly, cannot, human nature being what it is, take a real part in the management of matters which are supposed to be their own affairs. Local government in the sense in which it may have existed, or, for all that is known to me, it may still exist in a New England township or in a small Swiss canton, never will exist in Westminster or London. It is simply idle to suppose that the majority of the busy inhabitants of Westminster will under any circumstances whatever take a vigorous part in the conduct of the business of Westminster. They will not do it, for the best of all reasons, namely, that each individual, supposing that he is a respectable man engaged in any serious profession, will lose far more than he can possibly gain by spending his time, which is his strength and his money, one might almost say his life, in seeing that Westminster is well governed. With many men the attempt to do this would mean nothing short of ruin; but supposing that for a time a few citizens of exceptional public spirit were, if Westminster were made a municipality, to treat the affairs of their city as their own, there would be nothing whatever to encourage them in this course. There would, on the contrary, be everything to discourage their action. The larger the number of persons entitled to manage the affairs of Westminster, *i. e.*, the more democratic the constituency which elected the Town Council, the less would be the influence of any one individual who was not able to make the municipal business the main occupation of his life. Plenty of persons no doubt would be found to do this, but these are exactly the persons who, because they had no reputable business of their own, would be certain in one way or another to manage or mismanage the affairs of Westminster for their own behoof.

But it is little better than folly to argue this matter with any citizen of New York. It were the stupidest form of English vanity for me to suppose that, either in public spirit or in capacity for business, the citizens of New York, or of any other large American city, are on the average a whit inferior to the citizens of London, Birmingham, or Liverpool. It would argue, on the other hand, the dullest ignorance in any one who professed to know anything about the condition of the United States, if he pretended to deny that New York suffered from a kind of misgovernment of which a parallel is not as yet to be found in any of the leading cities of England. These facts are certain. The point to be insisted upon is that Englishmen see that the progress of democracy, combined with the conditions of life in great modern towns, has already produced in the United States and tends to produce in England certain definite and gross evils. The natural result is that thoughtful persons are looking to see how the problems of municipal government are dealt with in the United States. Already one can perceive signs that American experience is, through its indirect action on public opinion, having some effect. People who never heard of the misgovernment of New York, but who are unconsciously guided by the thinkers who, so to speak, do their thinking for the mass of the electorate, have been making efforts in more places than one to elect as mayors men of known position and respectability. There is no reason to assume that a rich man is morally superior to a poor man, but there is every reason to suppose that a man of position and wealth will more rarely plunder his fellow-citizens than a man who has neither character nor money. Then, again, the notion is slowly spreading that in matters of government you had better leave well enough alone. There are many institutions in England which hardly square with any given political theory, but which work tolerably well. It is at any rate conceivable that in municipal matters people may learn from American experience that good working arrangements, however anomalous, had better be left to work.

What is certain is, that a great many more people than might at first sight be supposed, are watching the struggle for good government which is being carried on in New York with the keenest interest. One need be no optimist to believe that a temporary defeat is in the history of a great town a very small matter. If the many excellent citizens of New York earnestly wish to put down roguery and oppression, they will no doubt succeed. The matter of supreme importance for Englishmen is to observe the steps by which success is achieved. If, for example, it ultimately turns out that the right course is to elect some honest man, give him extraordinary powers and a long tenure of office, there is no doubt whatever that such an example will tell upon the whole development of local government in England. But, for my present purpose, enough, and more than enough, has been written; my whole aim in this letter has been to insist upon the singular though unrecognized influence of the events in the United States on political speculation and action in England.

AN OBSERVER.

THE PAINTINGS AT CHANTILLY.

PARIS, December 30, 1897.

It is with a sad pleasure that I have gone through the new volume which M. Gruyer has just published on the collection of paintings in the Château de Chantilly. The first volume of this magnificent publication was written on the foreign schools, Flemish, Italian, English; the second volume was entirely filled with the description of the miniatures of Nicolas Fouquet, and with a study of this early French master. The editor was afraid that Nicolas Fouquet was not sufficiently well known to the public, and that the second volume would not easily be sold. He accordingly printed a small number of copies, and the consequence is, as the success of the volume was very great, that the edition is exhausted, and that the collectors of fine works are bidding high for a copy.

This third volume is worthy of its predecessors. It is illustrated by beautiful heliogravures by Braun, which remind me very exactly of the originals, which it has been my good fortune to admire so often in company with the Duke d'Aumale, who was never tired of going through the galleries of Chantilly, of making interesting remarks on all his pictures, which had become to him familiar friends. His enthusiasm did not diminish with time; his admiration was as keen as that of a young man, and he always found new reasons for it; his commentaries, semi-artistic, semi-historical, were incessant, and constantly renewed by an ever-increasing knowledge. And now these great galleries are deserted, and will remain so till the Institute is fairly in possession of Chantilly and opens its doors to the public.

I entered last summer only once the great gallery of paintings. It was in order to see a magnificent marble bust of the Duke d'Aumale which had been placed there. The history of this bust is interesting. Paul Dubois, our greatest living sculptor, who made the famous statues of the tomb of Lamoricière, of the Constable of Bourbon at Chantilly, the Jeanne d'Arc, etc., attempted in the past few years to make a bronze bust of the Duke d'Aumale, and it was placed in the Château. Dubois, who is a very severe critic of himself, was not satisfied with it; bronze is not, perhaps, the best material to choose for the representation of old age—it gives a terrible reality to all the insults of age. Dubois undertook, without being asked to do so, to make a marble bust of the Prince; and he was finishing it when the Prince died at Palermo. It had been his intention to offer it to the Prince; he offered it to his executors, who, naturally, presented it to the Institute for the galleries of Chantilly.

I need not follow the chronological order here, as M. Gruyer has done, and I may as well speak first of the portrait of the Duke

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d'Aumale painted by Bonnat. The Prince is represented in the costume of a general; he was then (1880) fifty-eight years old. Bonnat has painted him standing, with bare head, his red képi in his right hand, and his left hand on his sword. The attitude is simple, the resemblance is perfect. "What the painter," says M. Gruyer, "could not quite render, because it is probably untranslatable by painting, was the look of the eye, so penetrating and mild, so intelligent and so brave; those eyes, of a clear blue, which were darkened suddenly by emotion, passion, by sickness, too." This portrait, which is life-size, was placed, by the Prince himself, in the Salon d'Orléans, between a very beautiful and touching portrait of his mother, Queen Marie Amélie, and a portrait of his aunt, Madame Adélaïde, the beloved sister of Louis-Philippe. From the windows of this salon the Prince could look on the immense parterres, designed by Le Nôtre, on the grand canal, a river changed by the great Condé into a regular canal. In this room the Prince had placed all around the collection of his original drawings by the great masters and his choice engravings.

There is another portrait of the Duke by Bonnat, of small dimensions, the head only of the Prince, when he was older. It is a profile, full of life, and, in my opinion, more striking than the large picture of the Salon d'Orléans. The portrait, by Robert Fleury, of the Prince as a mere boy, at the age of nine, is in a room on the ground floor, called the Salon de Guise; it is of small dimensions. The young Prince is sitting on a bench in the park of Neuilly. He has the free-and-easy attitude of a child; in his round little head, so well constructed, in those clear blue eyes, you can already recognize the man. M. Gruyer contents himself with saying of this picture: "Very good little portrait." It deserved perhaps a little more praise; it is the jewel of the numerous portraits of the Duke d'Aumale.

The French school of the first half of the sixteenth century is represented by a portrait of Francis I., who was probably still Count d'Angoulême; by another portrait of Francis I., of small dimensions; and by a number of portraits which M. Gruyer attributes to Claude Corneille, commonly called Corneille de Lyon (born towards 1500, deceased after 1564). Brantôme tells us that Catherine de Médicis, finding herself with the Court at Lyons, in 1564, made a visit to the painter named Corneille, where she encountered the portraits of all the famous personages of the time, including herself; she was then forty-five years old and her portrait had been made when she was twenty-eight years old. She took great pleasure in seeing herself young and dressed in the fashion of Henri II. M. Gruyer gives many interesting details about this Corneille, who was in his time called the Flemish painter with reference to his origin. His best picture at Chantilly is a portrait of the Dauphin Francis, derived from the famous cabinet of Gaignières.

The Duke d'Aumale always took special care to collect all the portraits he could find made by Clouet, commonly called Janet, and the galleries of Chantilly are exceptionally rich in portraits by this eminent master. M. Gruyer was particularly well up on this subject, as he had published a study in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on "Charles IX. et François Clouet." Clouet is invaluable for the history of the sixteenth century; his portraits show us the actors of that time as they appeared on the stage; they are alive and have the merit of perfect realism. We find at Chantilly a painted portrait of Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre (the mother of Henri IV.), and two crayon portraits, a sort of specialty of Clouet's, whose hand is recognized at first sight. They are simply admirable; one represents Jeanne as a child of eight years, "the *mignonne des rois*," the other shows her at the age of twenty. It is interesting to compare these two crayons with a third by Clouet, preserved in the Cabinet des Estampes of the National Library. There Jeanne is old; she is the woman described by D'Aubigné: "Elle n'avait de la femme que le sexe, l'âme entière aux choses viriles." The best Clouet, perhaps, of the Chantilly collection is the portrait of Margaret of France, still a child. It is an aquarelle, with very light coloration, something between a painting and a mere drawing. This portrait of the famous Princess is of undoubted authenticity. Nowhere are the peculiar qualities of Clouet better recognized: the clearness, the exactitude of the features, combined with an admirable expression. The future Queen of Navarre is already apparent in this intelligent child. Among the other Clouets, we must cite Francis I.; the Duke d'Alençon, in the fine costume of the time, covered with pearls; Jacques de Savoie, Duc de Nemours, "the flower of chivalry," as Brantôme called him; Elizabeth of Austria, a repetition of the portrait which is preserved at the Louvre in the Salon Carré; King Henri II.; Odet de Coligny, Cardinal of Châtillon; Henri d'Albret, King of Navarre; Albert de Gondi; two portraits of Charles IX.

M. Gruyer is very strict in his attributions, and he enters a number of portraits which many collectors would have boldly attributed to certain famous masters simply as of the French school of the sixteenth century. Such are portraits of Charles IX., of the great Chancellor Michel de l'Hôpital, of Henri III., of Marshal Cossé, of Diane de Poitiers, of Catherine de Médicis, etc. If we proceed to the seventeenth century, we find first the Quesnels, who were, under the first two kings of the race of Bourbon, what the Janets had been under the Valois. They form a dynasty which extends from Francis I. to Louis XIV. They are represented at Chantilly by a portrait of Sully and a portrait of his brother, François de Béthune. The name of Philippe de Champaigne belongs to the French school, though he was Flemish by origin; he spent all his life in France. He is the master *par excellence* of Port Royal. He stands in history by the side of Pascal, of Sacy, of Nicole, of the Arnaulds, of Mère Angélique and Mère Agnès. His portraits have a gravity which belongs to the *grand siècle*. We see in the great gallery at Chantilly his life-size portrait of Richelieu, which was originally in the Palais-Royal, and a similar portrait of Mazarin, also from the Palais-Royal. These two pictures may be said to be historical monuments. The Mère Angélique is a real masterpiece. "Everything is sincere in it," says M. Gruyer; "painter and model are the friends of truth."

The Beaubruns (Henri and Charles), who lived together like the two Corneilles, were famous portrait-painters in the seventeenth century. They had the reputation of making a good likeness, though they embellished the person. As works of art their pictures do not hold a very high rank; they are more interesting for the historian than for the artist. We find at Chantilly two portraits made by them of Madame de Longueville, who played such an important part in the troubles of the Fronde; she was the sister of the great Condé. Madame de Maintenon, who was not a bad judge, called her "la plus spirituelle femme de son temps."

Mignard, who lived from 1610 to 1695, made three portraits of Molière (see Mignard's 'Life,' by Grimarest). In one of them, which is in the foyer of the Théâtre-Français, Molière is transfigured; he is in the costume of a Roman Emperor, with laurels on his head. We much prefer the portrait of Molière which is in the gallery at Chantilly. There we see the real man, tired, worn, his eyes reddened by fatigue; his expression is one of resignation, of kindness, of sadness. Mignard, who had much difficulty in obtaining a sitting from Molière, had probably found him one morning only half dressed; Molière had merely put on a wig and thrown a mantle over his shoulders. I have always considered this portrait, which has been the subject of many discussions, a masterpiece, on account of its realistic character and of its expression. It is very different from Mignard's finished and elaborate pieces, and much more interesting. You would hardly think it from the same hand as the portrait of Mignard's daughter, which is at the Palace of Versailles, and the great allegorical picture called "Repentance," which is to be seen in the long battle gallery at Chantilly. This last picture is very interesting; it shows Condé receiving the book of History from Glory, and tearing out the pages on which are narrated the battles he fought while he was in rebellion against the King. The torn pages are lying on the ground, and you can read on them that at the battle of the Dunes, where Condé fought on the side of the Spaniards against Turenne, if Don Juan had followed his advice he would not have lost the battle.

Correspondence.

"PLATO SHELVED."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. Shorey, who comments, in your last issue, upon the lucubrations of a certain "ingenuous youth" of the Leland Stanford Junior University upon the "passing of Plato," may be interested in a sentence which I find in John Stuart Mill's Autobiography, which is to the point:

"There is no author to whom my father thought himself more indebted for his own mental culture than Plato, or whom he more frequently recommended to young students. I can bear similar testimony in regard to myself" (chapter i.).

It is evident that, in the name of the university from which the "ingenuous youth" hails, the word "Junior" deserves a decided emphasis.

L. H. Schwab.

St. Mary's Rectory, Lawrence Street,
New York, January 12, 1898.

TENNYSON AND CRABBE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review in your paper of Hallam Lord Tennyson's memoir of his father justly calls attention to the interest of the

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many criticisms passed by Alfred Tennyson on other poets than himself. Undoubtedly such interest is as often Tennysonian as intrinsic. May I venture a word concerning one of these criticisms, which at first sight appears crotchety? I refer to the very high estimation in which Tennyson held the poetry of the Rev. George Crabbe. This worthy has long been relegated to the limbo of minor poets, yet Jeffrey, who treated Keats with elegant condescension, and who drew on the black cap when he sentenced Wordsworth, was almost devout when he treated of Crabbe.

In some respects a greater contrast to Tennyson would be hard to find than George Crabbe. The latter had little sense of the music of words, little feeling for beauty, little architectonic power—qualities for which Tennyson is justly renowned. Crabbe, too, was an eminently narrow-minded man, which Tennyson certainly was not. Yet the laureate's praise was unequivocal. He attributed to Crabbe a "hard pathos." "There is a 'tramp, tramp, tramp,' a merciless, sledge-hammer thud, about his lines which suits his subjects."

It is not for its originality that this remark is specially interesting. "[Crabbe's] tramp is a little heavy, and one must remember that Mr. Tovell and his like were of the race who require to have a joke driven into their heads by a sledge-hammer." This remark of Leslie Stephen's is quoted in an essay by FitzGerald, the devoted admirer of Crabbe, the life-long friend of Tennyson, than whom he was a more delicate and discerning critic. Yet Tennyson's opinion is not due entirely to FitzGerald.

The ruggedness of Crabbe, no doubt, attracted Tennyson by its very contrast to his own poetry. Moreover, a remarkable fidelity in the description of English rural life is common to the two poets, and must have confirmed or originated Tennyson's admiration for Crabbe, a poet quite as interesting to the historian of manners as to the literary critic, who recognizes in him no mean master of realism and of the poetry of disillusion. HENRY B. HINCKLEY.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., January 15, 1898.

AN INQUIRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Several months ago I picked up a copy of an American edition of Marcus Antonius which seems to be unknown to such bibliographical works as are accessible to me. I should be glad to know something of the editor, C. L. Porcher, whose name is not in the ordinary cyclopædias. He was evidently a strong anti-slavery man, as the title-page bears the following inscription: "N. Eboraci, U. S., 1863. A. Liberatæ Reip. I." The last sentence plainly refers to the emancipation proclamation, which took effect on the 1st of January, 1863. On the reverse of the title-page are the words: "Londini: Typis Gilbert et Rivington, St. John's Square," which shows that the book was printed in London, though published in New York. The Greek text is without accents. The notes were written, partly at least, in Minnesota ("ipse hic inter Minnesotæ deserta, libris, ubi desiderata impromptu, destituor," p. 138). He also refers to a sojourn on the Moose River, in Dakota (p. 103).

THOMAS M. JOHNSON.

OSCEOLA, MO., January 15, 1898.

Notes.

'A Century of American Statesmen: A Biographical Survey of American Politics from the Inauguration of Jefferson to the Close of the Nineteenth Century,' is the title of an ambitious work in four volumes which G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish for Prof. Moses Coit Tyler of Cornell. Prof. Tyler, not to be idle, has also in hand the 'Literary History of the American Republic during the First Half-Century of its Independence (1783-1833),' a continuation of his study of the Colonial and Revolutionary periods.

Other announcements by the same firm are the ninth volume, the last but one, of Paul Leicester Ford's 'Writings of Thomas Jefferson'; the 'Life of Charles Carroll of Carrollton (1737-1832),' by Kate Mason Rowland; 'Thirty Years of American Finance,' by Alexander Dana Noyes; the second volume of Prof. C. M. Andrews's 'Historical Development of Modern Europe from 1850 to the Present Time'; 'The Story of Modern France (1789-1895),' by André Le Bon; 'The Building of the British Empire (1558-1895),' by Alfred Thomas Story; 'The Bargain Theory of Wages,' by Prof. John Davidson; 'A Simple Grammar of English Now in Use,' by Prof. John Earle; 'Some Common Errors of Speech,' by Prof. Alfred G. Compton; 'Boston Neighbors; In Town and Out,' by Agnes Blake Poor; and a new edition of Ambrose Bierce's 'In the Midst of Life' (Tales of Soldiers and Civilians).

The Macmillan Co. report progress on the 'Dictionary of the Bible,' projected by the late Prof. Robertson Smith in conjunction with Dr. Sutherland Black. Prof. Smith has been succeeded by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne, and five-sixths of the material is already in hand. The volume will contain as much matter as nearly two of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The same firm announces 'The Bible Story,' retold for young people, with illustrations and maps; Turgot's 'Reflections on the Formation and Distribution of Riches,' edited by Prof. Ashley of Harvard; and 'The Storage Battery,' by Augustus Treadwell, jr.

The committee on publications of the Caxton Club, Chicago, announce 'Some Letters of Edgar Allan Poe to J. B. Patterson of Oquawka, Ill., with Comments by Eugene Field,' a royal octavo volume of 32 pages, with six facsimiles of Poe's MS. Only 286 copies will be printed, and members can subscribe to but two each.

Subscriptions are invited by N. Murray, Johns Hopkins University, to a photographic reproduction of the famous and unique birch-bark manuscript of the Kashmirian 'Atharva-Veda' in the Library of the University of Tübingen, consisting of 287 leaves written on both sides. The work will be carefully supervised by Prof. Bloomfield, and 200 numbered copies will be issued at $25 each.

The publishing section of the American Library Association, of which Mr. W. C. Lane of the Boston Athenæum is Secretary and Treasurer, makes the important announcement of its undertaking to print from this date catalogue cards for articles in current periodicals and society publications (all of a learned character, and numbering 184 at present). Two copies of each will be furnished, to serve one for author and the other for subject entry if desired. The cost will depend on the number of adherents, and the subscription is provisionally fixed at $3.00 per hundred titles for the complete set, $4.50 for specified publications. This seems to rival the work of the international bureau at Brussels. The five libraries that have taken the initiative in it are Harvard, Columbia, Boston Public, John Crerar, and New York Public. As many more ordering the complete set would put the scheme on a sure footing.

Mr. Bernhard Berenson is engaged in the very laborious task of sifting and cataloguing all the drawings by the Florentine painters, with authentic criticism and appreciation. The illustrations will consist of about 200 facsimiles. The book will be printed in Berlin at the Imperial Press, and published in London by Lawrence & Bullen, probably next year.

A third, revised edition of Mr. Alfred R. Conkling's 'City Government in the United States' (D. Appleton & Co.) contains a chapter on the Greater New York charter of 1897. We noticed the book on its appearance in its original form. The new chapter describes the more salient features of the charter, and calls attention to the fact that the Legislature may at any time amend it; the buoyant optimism of Mr. Conkling leads him to predict that the constant interference of the Legislature with the goverment of the city will in time produce such a "strong public opinion" against interference that we shall be let alone (p. 223). He makes on behalf of the opponents of the charter another prediction—that "the time of the courts will be occupied for many years in the construction of this document"—which will probably be more speedily verified.

'Benin: The City of Blood,' by Commander R. H. Bacon, R. N. (Edward Arnold), is an account of the recent English punitive expedition in the Niger delta by its intelligence officer. It aims to tell the story briefly and from the purely military point of view, and especially to "leave on record certain details of organization and equipment" for the use of similar expeditions in the future. The general reader, however, cannot fail to be interested in Commander Bacon's narrative of the actual operations, the march through the dense bush during which volleys were fired regularly every one or two minutes at the invisible foe, the attack and capture of the "huge pest-house." The horrors of this place, in which there was a pervasive awful smell, "as if the grass had been watered with blood," defy adequate description, and its accidental destruction by fire was a fitting close to its frightful history. It is singular that neither gold nor silver was found, but there were some magnificently carved tusks, and "in one house were several hundred unique bronze plaques, suggestive of almost Egyptian design, but of really superb casting." In view of the criticisms on the lack of efficient organization displayed in the Indian frontier campaign just closed, it is worth recording as a remarkable feat that to collect 1,200 men from three places 3,000 to 4,500 miles distant, to march them by an unknown and waterless road, to capture Benin, and to reëmbark the force, with a loss of but ten men killed, took only seventy-five days. There are several appendices, giving lists of officers and casualties, and details in regard to the stores and the "kits" of the men, a map, and a few illustrations.

A. Parmentier's 'Album Historique,' published by A. Colin & Cie. under the direction

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of M. Ernest Lavisse, reaches in its second volume 'La Fin du Moyen Âge' (14th and 15th centuries). As its name imports, this work is for reference rather than for steady reading. It is crammed with illustrations of buildings, costumes, furniture, weapons, implements, statuary, paintings, etc., etc., touching the secular and religious life of the various peoples of Europe for the period in question. Through this maze the text works its way as it can. Numerous admirable indexes provide a ready key to everything, with the least trouble; even ornamental initial letters being entered alphabetically as well as grouped under *majuscules*. A great mass of authentic information is here made accessible.

Count Goblet d'Alviella, well known as the author of 'La Migration des Symboles,' has published, through Ernest Leroux & Co., Paris, a treatise of 200 pages on 'Ce que l'Inde doit à la Grèce,' which contains a good summary of the latest researches on the relations between India and the West, in a wider sense than is indicated by the title. The author is inclined to be sceptical in regard to alleged religious loans of importance, though he admits that in minor points India may have borrowed from the West, as Greece has certainly influenced India in respect of art and later literature. Hindu astronomy and medicine have, he says, been perfected by Greek influence; but he sees no reason to suppose that the national epics of India owe anything to Hellenic examples. It is in the plastic arts and perhaps in the drama that the contact with Grecian culture "a agi comme un ferment pour vivifier les qualités natives de l'esprit indien, sans lui enlever son originalité ni sa souplesse." The little book, useful in plan and critical in execution, is not without minor errors. It is not true, as is stated on p. 153, that idols are not known in the Vedic age; and the drama referred to on p. 90 as having been written in the sixth century B. C. was really written in the corresponding century A. D. Those interested in the interchange of literary and religious ideas on the part of Greece and India may read the book with profit and rely on the author's fairness and general scholarship.

According to a recent report of the French Minister of Public Instruction, the number of elementary schools in France, exclusive of *écoles maternelles* (kindergartens) is 83,465, an increase of 223 during the past year. Of these schools, 15,909 are private establishments conducted or at least controlled by the clergy. The congregationalists (Jesuits and affiliated orders) have 5,649 educational institutions, whereas the public lay schools number 61,907; it will thus be seen that the latter are steadily increasing and the former constantly diminishing. There are at present 151,563 teachers of both sexes and 4,580,183 pupils between the ages of six and thirteen. The number of the latter is, however, constantly diminishing; from 1891 to 1895 this decrease was 16,000, and from 1895 to 1896 6,584, in the elementary schools, and a similar diminution is also perceptible in the higher institutions of learning. In the mixed schools there were 694,592 pupils in 1895 and 693,611 in 1896.

According to the official report just published by the Director General, Torraca, there are in Italy 50,135 common schools, of which 25,118 are obligatory and 25,017 optional; 21,979 are for boys, 18,703 for girls, and 10,173 are mixed schools. Two-fifths of the school-houses are good, two-fifths tolerable, and one-fifth utterly bad. Of the 50,000 teachers, 19,000 are competent, 24,000 passable, and 7,000 wholly inefficient. The number of registered pupils is 2,300,000, of whom 162,000 are of a higher grade. The best elementary schools are in Piedmont and Lombardy; the worst in southern Italy, and especially in Sicily.

The Boston Public Library has put out a substantial volume of selections from its monthly bulletins from January, 1896, to October, 1897, inclusive, presenting 6,000 titles as the cream of about 9,000. Hereafter the publication will be yearly, in conformity with the title, 'Annual List of New and Important Books Added to the Public Library.' It is issued at the extraordinary price of five cents a copy (176 pages, octavo), which is partly made possible by the use of the linotype process in setting the original bulletins. The unloveliness of this process, by reason of want of contrast in the typography, is again noticeable. There are nearly two hundred titles of works upon money. A comparatively small space is given to fiction. In a somewhat careful examination we have noted but a single error, the placing of Nansen's 'Farthest North' under Africa.

'Class List No. 1, English Prose Fiction,' comes to us from the St. Louis Public Library, and reminds us, in view of so many similar catalogues, of the failure of economic coöperation in this direction. A feature of the present volume is "a reliable guide for readers and libraries" in the shape of "lists of the best novels, based on individual and collective opinions." We are afraid the reliability will appear rather dubious to minds ready to bow to authority, but counselled so diversely as here. In the supplementary list of "best novels published since 1884," Mr. A. S. Hardy's 'Passe Rose' is made a "back number" by being printed "Passé."

A large part of the Consular Reports for December is taken up with the new Cuban tariff. Among other subjects treated are the use of dogs as draught animals on the Continent, technical education in Austria, and the agriculture and industries of Thessaly. These last consist chiefly in the cultivation of grain, and in a few cotton, and, apparently, grist mills, factories, and tanneries. Last year's harvest, amounting to nearly seven million bushels of grain, was wholly appropriated by the Turkish troops, who also took all the sheep and cattle which were not driven off before the invasion. From the 1st of January the most important reports will be printed as soon as they are received, and issued as advance sheets to the newspaper press and such as may desire them. At the end of the month they will be reprinted and published in their present form.

Garden and Forest has, we regret to say, suspended publication at the close of its tenth volume. Its public, necessarily a select one, has been found too small to give it adequate support. Prof. C. S. Sargent, on whom the pecuniary burden rested, whose conception this periodical was, and who was a constant editorial contributor, must console himself with the gratitude of those to whose intelligence and refined love of nature and of landscape art he has so disinterestedly ministered.

The second part of Dr. Moriz Hoernes's paper on the artistic sense of prehistoric man, as shown in the bronze figures unearthed in various parts of Europe, is published in No. 4 of the *Mittheilungen* of the Prehistoric Commission of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of Vienna. Certain objects found in Italy are described, and their historical significance pointed out. In the same number is an account, by Jaroslav Palliardi, of painted pottery of neolithic times discovered in Moravia and lower Austria. Both papers are illustrated.

An appreciative notice of the late Dr. Benjamin Apthorp Gould, by Wilhelm Foerster, appears in the *Procès-Verbaux* of the International Committee of Weights and Measures for 1897.

The Royal Institution, London, is hardly a place where one would expect to find unpublished records of the American Revolutionary War. Nevertheless, at that establishment there are preserved about sixty volumes of original papers connected with the headquarters of the British Army, when commanded by Howe, Carleton, and Clinton. These embrace some sixty hitherto unpublished letters from Washington, memorials of the services of British officers, and documents concerning Loyalists. It appears that this mass of papers was originally in the possession of Maurice Morgann, the secretary of Sir Henry Clinton. At Morgann's death they got into other hands, and ultimately were left, by will, to the Royal Institution. The Historical Manuscripts Commissioners have, by a happy choice, intrusted the calendaring of the Morgann collection to Mr. B. F. Stevens.

A self-correcting two-fold error was made in our recent account of the *Biographisches Jahrbuch* and of the *Biographische Blätter* from which it springs. The only thing *bibliographical* about this valuable work is its list of biographies published during the year.

—In the preface to his post-graduate 'Lectures on the English Language,' delivered at Columbia College in 1858-'59, Mr. George P. Marsh expressed a hope that English studies were "soon to receive a new impulse and new aids from the publication of a complete dictionary of the English language—a work of prime necessity to all the common moral and literary interests of the British and American people, and which is now in course of execution by the London Philological Society, upon a plan, and with a command of facilities, that promise the most satisfactory results." At the expiration of thirty years, in 1888, this great enterprise culminated in the A-B volume of the 'New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,' since called for short the 'Oxford Dictionary'; and now, forty years after Mr. Marsh's "soon," we can point to the C and D-E volumes bound upon the shelf, while the current instalment (Frank-law—Gain-coming), just received from Henry Frowde, concludes the first and begins the second half of the F-G volume. Taking the 'Century Dictionary' for comparison, we estimate that the point now reached marks the accomplishment of one-third of the gigantic task; in other words, that eleven volumes will be necessary to contain the whole alphabet. That was the conclusion we arrived at when we last made such a calculation. In the next two quarterly instalments we are to have a generous portion of the letter H, from Dr. Murray, which will proceed simultaneously with Mr. Bradley's G.

—In the tailings of F there is plenty to

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interest. How did Englishmen get along without the word *funny* before 1756? In 1755 *fun* was to Dr. Johnson a low, cant word. The first quotation for *fuss*, the noun, is no older than 1701; the verb starts in at 1792; Byron uses *fussily* in 1817, and Tom Moore *fussy* in 1831, while Arthur Helps finds *fussiness* ready made or convenient to make in 1851. To Scott, perhaps, we owe *free lance* (1820); to Cobbett *free trade*, as opposed to protection (1823). The exclamatory *fudge* of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' (1766) is the first literary instance of this usage. *Black Friday*, school slang in 1611, then applied to the day (December 6, 1745) when the news of the Young Pretender's landing was announced in London, was revived for May 11, 1866, when a commercial panic ensued upon the failure of Overend, Gurney & Co., and (but Mr. Bradley does not record this, though the 'Century Dictionary' gives it) when Fisk and Gould's gold venture broke the New York market on September 24, 1869. The dramatist Middleton supplies the earliest use of *freshman*, in the sense of novice (1627), and the sole example of *freshwoman*, "the analogue of a freshman in an imaginary university" (1627), now realized. A man's *frock coat* we read of in 1823; and Mr. Bradley says that "in the language of [English] fashionable society the use of *frock* for 'dress' has within the last few years been revived," after having been long relegated to children's wear. Masson, in his 'Chatterton,' imported the verb *function* from across the Channel (1856), and Mr. Marsh used it, with an "as the French say," in his 'Lectures on the English Language' (1862). "The blunder is somewhat common both in England and in the United States" of associating *fruition* with *fruit*—as if 'fruiting' or 'fructification.' Our American expression, "The moon *fulls*," is shared by the Suffolk dialect. "The plural forms *spoonsful*, *cupsful*, etc., which are still sometimes heard, represent," says Mr. Bradley, "either a survival of or (much more probably) a return to the older grammatical view; but though they have thus some appearance of historical justification, they are contrary to good modern usage, and are objectionable on account of their ambiguity." *Full*, which has relationships in *pl*enary, com*pl*ement, *plus*, *pl*ethoric, *pol*ygamy, occupies more than four pages of the present work. *From* requires one and two-thirds pages; its primary sense, 'forward,' we may recognize in Nansen's *Fram*. Mr. Kipling's gentleman in black who broke the British square at his "'ome in the Soudan," is embalmed under *fuzzy* in a quotation commendably up to date.

—'Sainte-Beuve: Seven of the Causeries du Lundi' is the title of a little book by George McLean Harper, Professor of Romance Languages at Princeton (Henry Holt & Co.). The essays are published in the original, with notes in English, and an introduction by Mr. Harper which is itself a pleasant contribution to the literature of the subject. In forty pages he has given an intelligent account of Sainte-Beuve's life and character, and a criticism of his work, good in both matter and style. In the latter the reader is tempted sometimes to think that the influence of Sainte-Beuve's own manner may be detected; the English seems to have acquired a French exactitude and conversational flow, a sanity, a rationality which are a little more delicate than one is wont to find in English. The effect, however, is far from being that of imitation; it seems more like the natural result of much study of a master. Prof. Harper dwells on Sainte-Beuve's great urbanity, which always makes him something more than either a professor or a journalist (in the French sense); he is a man of the world also. When we listen to him we hear the conversation of a gentleman, addressed to other gentlemen. We are not in church, nor in a lecture-room, nor in a political assembly, nor in Bohemia; we are quite at home, in the best company in the world, that of those who have made history and literature interesting to us, companions who are never dull, never offend us, never quarrel with us, and always entertain us. Mr. Harper insists very justly that Sainte-Beuve's want of moral sense, if such it can be called, was a "defect of his qualities." Moral judgments would have been out of place in his conversations; his aim was literary solely. And yet, singularly enough, he is never more masterly than when he is elucidating a character. His essay on Lafayette, for instance, is a most delicate piece of moral analysis. He seems at times to dwell in a realm of intelligence which is above morality, because it detects the secret springs of moral action, and in which the end—*tout comprendre, tout pardonner*—might be really attained. The author gives a good account of Sainte-Beuve's attitude toward Lamartine and Chateaubriand; this recalls the anecdote of the conversation in which he said, after discussing them with an American visitor, "Mais, charlatan pour charlatan, je préfère Lamartine."

—The editors of the recently published Hebrew text of 'Ecclesiasticus,' Messrs. Cowley and Neubauer, of the Bodleian Library, Oxford, have issued in a pamphlet (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) the translation in parallel columns with the latest English Revised Version from the Greek (Apocrypha, 1895). This exhibits conveniently for English readers the noteworthy differences in detail between the Hebrew and the Greek, which until 1897 was the nearest known approach to the original. The translation of the Hebrew shows slight variations from that given in the original publication a few months ago. The principal ones follow: In xl. 16 we now have in place of "axes" "reed-stalks" (formerly given as a possible variant); xl. 26 "[treasure]" is now queried; xli. 2 now reads, "Unto a man that hath trouble, and that lacketh strength," for "Unto him that hath no might, and lacketh strength"; the marginal conjecture "turning away" is now substituted in the text for "reckoning" before "the face of thy friend," xli. 21, and the chapter-division between xli. and xlii. is also slightly changed; for the marginal reading "He [establisheth all things forever]" xlii. 23, we now have "He l[iveth and abid]eth for [ever]"; "like rottenness," xliii. 20, becomes "like crystal"; xliv. 15 is inserted from the margin; "the prophet of God," xlvi. 13, becomes "by the word of God," and "he was [san]ctified a gazer," xlvi. 15, becomes "he was [sepa]rated to be a gazer"; "the earth . . ," xlvii. 15 in the editio princeps, now appears as "thou didst cover the earth with thy [soul]." The same care is used as in the editio princeps to indicate in the translation the precise state of the original text. The extent of the fragment translated is the same as that already published—xxxix. 15-xlix. 11. The facsimile prefixed represents the last leaf of the MS. It is understood among scholars that other leaves have been discovered, and it is to be hoped that we may soon come into possession of substantially the whole book in the original Hebrew.

—The sun's total eclipse on Saturday morning, January 22 (early afternoon in India), will not be permitted to pass unobserved, although its duration is slight. No less than twelve separate parties are established in the field, and without doubt all are at the present moment in thorough preparation and training. By far the most distinguished astronomer who has gone out on this service is Sir Norman Lockyer, encamped on the west coast of India, nearly 200 miles south of Bombay, where the eclipse track first impinges, having previously crossed the Indian Ocean from the African coast of Somali. Mr. Lockyer has the efficient assistance of officers and men of one of the cruisers of the Royal Navy, told off from Ceylon for this especial service. Just before leaving England, he published a book to set forth his views on eclipse research, and he will probably be successful in securing the sort of observations requisite as corroboration of his favorite solar theories. As yet it must be said that Nature has kept well her secret of the sun's corona; for although many eyes have seen it, no one has been able to draw it completely, no camera has yet photographed it in all the wealth of filamentous detail, nor does any theory of its constitution yet propounded meet with general acceptance. The multitude of observers and the chance of good weather have excited astronomical expectation more than any other phenomenon of like character since the great totality of 1878, so abundantly observed in our Western States.

—Other parties under British official auspices are in charge of the Astronomer Royal, Mr. W. H. M. Christie, and Prof. H. H. Turner of Oxford, who, undaunted by their signal failure in Japan, have taken up a station in central India, with about the same programme as before; of Dr. Ralph Copeland, Scottish Astronomer Royal, who is provided with a telescope of unusual proportions, that he may obtain the corona on a very large scale; and of Captain Hills, Royal Engineers, with Mr. H. F. Newall of Cambridge, whose interest lies mainly in photographing the complicated spectrum of the corona, as was first done by Prof. Schuster in Egypt sixteen years ago. A thriving society of English amateurs, too, has dispatched an ample expedition, which is under the able guidance of Mr. Walter Maunder, and prepared with apparatus for much novel and ingenious experiment. The Great Indian Peninsular Railway from Poona to Madras penetrates the shadow belt, and is an immense help in locating expeditions. Prof. Naegamvala and Dr. Michie-Smith of the home observatories are both in the field; and the Japanese astronomers, who have failed to catch even a glimpse of the corona in both eclipses recently visible in their country, have an encampment in a very promising region of India, where, it is to be hoped, success awaits them, especially as they have had the foresight to provide themselves with one of the best instruments for coronal photography. America is represented by only two parties, both Californian in origin, but inferior to none of the foreign expeditions, in either material equipment or

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experience in using it. Among other problems attacked will be the rate at which the corona turns round axially, this observation having been shown possible by M. Deslandres of Paris during the eclipse in Senegal five years ago.

PUTNAM'S BOOKS AND THEIR MAKERS.

Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages: A Study of the Conditions of the Production and Distribution of Literature from the Fall of the Roman Empire to the Close of the Seventeenth Century. By George Haven Putnam, A.M. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897. Vol. II. A. D. 1500-1709. 8vo, pp. x, 538.

Mr. Putnam's services in behalf of international copyright entitle his writings on the subject to respectful consideration. His collection of papers on 'The Question of Copyright' appeared in 1891 (revised edition in 1896), and it was followed in 1894 by 'Authors and their Public in Ancient Times,' which serves as an introduction to the present work. The volume before us continues the historical sketch of book-publishing and book-censorship in Europe from the closing year of the fifteenth century to the enactment of Queen Anne's copyright statute in 1710. The author states in the preface to the first volume that he has "attempted simply to present a study of certain conditions in the history of the manifolding and distribution of books by which the production and effectiveness of literature was very largely influenced and determined, and under which the conception of such a thing as literary property gradually developed." It is evident that he has taken no small pains, under serious disadvantages, in gathering material and in putting it into shape. The plan of arrangement is good, and the subject is treated in an entertaining way. The sources of information, however, have not always been chosen with equal judgment, while in a number of instances the best authorities are not used at all. As the standard of accuracy for a publication of this character is necessarily set high, the critical reader will wish to have the test applied in statements of fact and date.

The volume opens with the introduction of printing into France, the year of which should have been given as 1470, and not 1469. The true date was fixed by the researches of Dr. Ludwig Sieber, described in Philippe's 'Origine de l'imprimerie à Paris,' published in 1885, from which it appears that the three German printers were called from Basel (not from Constance) during Jean Heynlin's second priorate of the Sorbonne College, beginning March 25, 1470, N. S., and that their first book, the Epistles of Gasparinus Barzizius, was issued towards the end of the same year. Forty years after this event it is stated that there were in Paris over fifty printing concerns, and that even before the close of the fifteenth century the Parisian trade in books was the largest in Europe. Considerable space is given to the history of the Estiennes, or Stephani, who carried on their business at Paris and Geneva for five generations, or more than a century and a half. The most famous of the family was Robert Estienne, who succeeded to the establishment of his father Henry in 1526. Misled by Greswell, our author states that Robert began in 1524, and that his first publication was the treatise 'De Deo Socratis' of Apuleius in 1525. The edition referred to was really printed a hundred years later, in 1625, by Robert Estienne the third. The publishing house of the Estiennes came to an end not long after 1660.

Book-publishing in England is illustrated by an account of Caxton's undertakings, with sketches of other English presses. Of Caxton it is remarked that his experience as a publisher did nothing towards the development of any conception of literary property. In 1556 the Stationers' Company received their charter, and beginning with the following year the members of the guild had their books registered for copyright. R. Clavel's catalogue of English books from 1666 to 1680 is referred to as the "earliest catalogue of books published in England," but this is not the fact, for it was preceded by Andrew Maunsell's in 1595, an anonymous publication in 1631, John Rothwell's in 1657, and William London's in 1658-60.

The greatest publishing house of the fifteenth century was founded in Nuremberg by Anthony Koberger, who died in 1513, after a successful business career of fifty years. He did not limit his undertakings to his own presses, but gave contracts to printers in other parts of Europe. Jodocus Badius speaks of him as "that glorious Nuremberger, esteemed of honorable men everywhere as the prince of booksellers, the man who conducted his business with the most exact integrity and with the highest ideals." Another great German publisher was John Froben, established at Basel from 1491 to 1527. Erasmus, who was in his service as editor, and whose books were published by him, called him "the Aldus of Germany," and, writing from Basel in 1523, he says:

"I find here three methods of bringing a book into print. Sometimes Froben takes upon himself the entire risk and outlay. . . . In other cases the publication is undertaken for the account of some person interested, and Froben simply reserves a commission for his services; and under a third arrangement, the publication is undertaken by two or three firms, associated as a temporary company."

When Froben died, in 1527, Erasmus wrote as follows:

"To me his kindness was unbounded. What plots would he not lay, what occasions would he not seek, to force some present upon me! Nor did I ever see him better pleased than when he had prevailed upon me, either by artifice or by entreaties, to accept one. . . . Nor did I ever find more use for my rhetoric than to invent pretexts for declining the munificence of my publisher without giving umbrage to my friend."

The new conditions that were brought into existence by the Reformation are treated in the chapter on "Luther as an Author." One effect was to increase and popularize the work of the printing-press, and another was to develop a rigorous censorship, ecclesiastical and imperial. It is stated that, by 1520, more than 100 editions had been printed of the German versions of Luther's sermons and tracts. The first edition of his German New Testament appeared in September, 1522, and a second edition was ready before the end of the same year. The complete Bible was finished in 1534. In Luther's lifetime it is estimated that 100,000 copies of his New Testament were printed at Wittenberg alone. The restrictions upon publishers in regard to the printing of this version were gradually removed, and in 1564 it was formally declared free of privilege, and became common property for all Germany. Luther's experience did not help to advance the recognition of the rights of an author in his literary productions.

The statement about the printing of Slovenian or Wendish literature at Tübingen requires correction. According to Schnurrer and Safarík, the first two books ever printed in this language (the shorter and larger catechisms) were issued from Morhart's press in 1550—not in 1529. Primus Truber, who was born in 1508, was author, editor, and publisher, but not the printer, of the books. Neither did he nor Morhart publish, in 1530 or at any other time, "an edition in Bohemian of Luther's New Testament." They did publish, in 1557-'60, the Slovenian or Wendish version of the New Testament; and in 1562-'63 two editions of the Croatian or Illyrian New Testament, one in Glagolitic and the other in Cyrillic type.

The publishing house of Plantin in Antwerp was founded in 1555, and came to a close only in 1867, in which year the entire establishment was bought by the city for 1,200,000 francs and opened as the Plantin Museum. In this place are exhibited all the details of bookmaking in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, including the presses, type, and other utensils. The account-books of the firm have also been preserved, and in them is found the record of payments to authors and editors for literary work. For the publication of his great Polyglot Bible, from 1569 to 1573, Plantin obtained a privilege from the Pope which gave the publisher exclusive control for twenty years, and which brought upon any reprinter excommunication and a fine of 2,000 livres. Royal and other privileges were granted for the same work, for twenty years each, in Spain, France, Venice, and Naples, and for ten years in Germany.

The most famous of all the Dutch printer-publishers were the Elzevirs. Beginning in 1580 at Leyden, branches were established at The Hague (1590-1661) and at Amsterdam (1638-1681). The Leyden concern came to an end in 1713. The relations between the Elzevirs and the scholars resident in the Low Countries, whose works they printed, appear to have been satisfactory. As far as the foreign authors were concerned, they took what material they thought they could use, without troubling themselves to make requests or acknowledgments. "They were, in fact, the most extensive piratical publishers that the world had as yet seen, and may be said to have reduced piracy to a business system." Credit must be given to them, however, for helping to prepare the way for interstate copyright. In extending the sale of their own publications in countries far distant from the "country of origin," and in finding sale for the works of widely separated authors, "they helped to develop in several communities the understanding that literary productions had nothing to do with political boundaries, that the readers of one country were of necessity dependent upon the literature of all countries, and that the boundaries of the world of literature were the boundaries of civilization."

Censorship of the press began as early as 1480, with the *imprimatur* or secular record of authorization, and the *testamur* or ecclesiastical certificate of approval. In France it was urged that "to propagate the knowledge of the Greek and Hebrew languages would operate to the absolute destruction of all religion." An ecclesiastic is quoted as saying from the pulpit: "A new language has been discovered which they call Greek.

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Against this you must be carefully on your guard, for it is the infant tongue of all heresies. There is a book written in that language called the New Testament. It is *un livre plein de ronces et de vipères.* As to the Hebrew tongue, it is well known that all who learn it presently become Jews." The first papal bull "contra Impressores Librorum Reprobatorum" was issued by Innocent VIII. in 1487, and in 1559 the first Roman Index was published. In the treatment of this subject Mr. Putnam has evidently not consulted the standard work of Reusch, 'Der Index der verbotenen Bücher' (1883-'85); and he misapplies throughout the term *Index Expurgatorius* to the *Index Prohibitorius.* Of the Tridentine *Index Librorum Prohibitorum* of 1564, he says, that "it was printed ten times subsequently between 1564 and 1593," when in fact there are on record nearly fifty editions for that period. In another place (p. 270) he twice confounds the name of the printer Francisco Ferdinand de Cordova with the name of the city Cordova, to which place he assigns the printing of two editions of the Index really printed at Valladolid.

Mr. Putnam is at his best in the last part of the volume, which treats of the beginnings of property in literature, as regulated by privileges or monopolies, in Italy, Germany, France, and England. The earliest recorded copyright to an author was granted at Venice in 1486, apparently for an indefinite term, and the earliest example of a copyright to an editor is one dated 1493. Until 1560 the average term of a copyright in Venice was ten years, but after that date the terms began to increase. One was granted to Ariosto, for his 'Orlando,' to last for his lifetime; and in 1535 a copyright was given to his heirs for a period of ten years for certain of the poet's works. At the close of the seventeenth century it seems to have been the general understanding in England that authors possessed in their productions a perpetual right of property, and that this right could be assigned. This stage of development in the conception of literary property had as yet been reached in no other country. The act of Queen Anne, which was passed in 1709 and went into effect April 10, 1710, gave a statutory protection for a term of fourteen years to the author of a literary production, and had the result of bringing to a close for Great Britain the period of common-law copyright.

The last chapter traces the development of the conception of literary property, from the period when monasteries controlled the copying of manuscripts, through the various phases of monopolies, privileges, trade-organizations, and legislative enactments, to the formation of conditions which led to the International Copyright Convention at Bern in 1887. The basis of copyright legislation in Europe and America, representing in substance the survival of the discussions of two centuries, is the theory that "property in an intellectual production is the creation of statute, and is subject to limitations depending not upon any natural rights of the producer, but upon the convenience or advantage of the community." Mr. Putnam is inclined to the opinion that the actual status of an intellectual production and the relation of its producer to the community would be more accurately expressed by combining with this theory the conception of "as comprehensive and unlimited a control for the production of the labor of the mind as that conceded by the community to the production of the labor of the hand"; and he cites, as a practical compromise of the rights and requirements of the author on the one hand and the interests of the community on the other, the result of copyright legislation in France, by which, in 1867, the term of copyright was fixed, not for perpetuity, but for the life of the author and fifty years thereafter.

Bibliographical work is peculiarly liable to error, but this volume seems to contain more than its full share, for it has upwards of a hundred mistakes, many of which could have been corrected by an intelligent proof-reader. Wrong dates are frequent; *e. g.*, 1576 for 1476 (p. 165), 1618 for 1518 (p. 208), 1552 for 1556 (p. 107), 1579 for 1597 (p. 84). Antoine Vérard began publishing in 1485, not in 1495 (p. 8); the Lyons edition of Brant's 'Stultifera Navis' (p. 10) was translated—not published—by Locher, and the true date is 1498, although the book is misdated 1488; the date of Caxton's death (p. 101) should be 1491, as on page 125, and not 1492; the first publication of Aldus in Venice (p. 102) was in 1494, three years after, instead of one year after, Caxton's death.

Misspelled words are numerous: Polyæmus for Polyænus (p. 89), Perseus for Persius (p. 91), Veragine for Voragine (p. 118), Pencer for Peucer (p. 320), Blaen for Blaeu (p. 325), Mersius for Meursius, six times (pp. 320-21), Maretus for Muretus (p. 321), Trochsover for Froschover (p. 141), Preschel for Trechsel (p. 13), Merso-Gothic for Mœso-Gothic (p. 306). On page 117 the monk Roger, of St. Werberg, is transformed to Roger Monk, of St. Werberg. The Latin book-titles have suffered more than those in other languages, as when two are run into one, *e. g.*:

"Digestorum seu Pandectarum volumina quinque Biblia utriusque Testamenti Latina," etc. (pp. 31-32); or

"Thomæ de Aquino, glossa continua super quatuor Evangelistis Biblia Latina" (p. 152);

or when two commentators are made one:

"Virgilii Opera cum Commentariis Servii Valeriani Castigationibus" (p. 32).

The following specimen, with its six misspellings, is copied *literatim* from page 319:

"Drusii Ebraicarum quæstrinum, sive quæstrinum æ responsionum, libri duo, videlicet secondus œ tertrus."

Among errors of statement requiring correction are the following: Koberger's edition of the 'Gesta Romanorum,' 1493 (pp. 118, 153, 161), is not the first, there having been twenty or more earlier editions. Tyndale's translation of the Pentateuch, instead of being printed after his death (p. 140), was printed six years before that event, or in 1530. It was not a Bible, but a New Testament, that was issued in 1538 at Southwark (p. 142), and the printer was not John Nicholson, but James Nicolson. Other statements on the same page are incorrect. The polyglot Pentateuch printed at Constantinople in 1547 (p. 260) is in Hebrew, Chaldee, Greek, and Spanish, and contains no Latin version at all. An edition in Hebrew, Chaldee, Persian, and Arabic was printed at the same place in 1546. On page 211, Heynlin and Fichet, the two French doctors of the Sorbonne, are called "the German printers," while Gering and Krantz, whom they induced to come to Paris, are termed "their successors." Richard Pynson was not the assistant, but the business rival, of Wynkyn De Worde (p. 138); he was not at any time associated with De Worde in the management of the Caxton Press; nor is it correct to say (p. 139) that "after the death of De Worde, Pynson continued the work of the Caxton Press with his own imprint." Pynson died in 1530, and De Worde survived him four years.

It is unfortunate that in a work of so much merit there should appear so many blemishes.

MORE FICTION.

The Green Book. By Maurus Jokai. Translated by Mrs. Waugh. Harper & Bros.

Taquisara. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

A Rose of Yesterday. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

Corleone: A Tale of Sicily. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

On a Western Campus. By the Class of '98, Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa. Buffalo: Charles Wells Moulton.

Daughters of Æsculapius: Stories written by Alumnæ and Students of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.

My Lord Duke. By E. W. Hornung. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Great K. & A. Train Robbery. By Paul Leicester Ford. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Mr. Peters. By Riccardo Stephens. Harper & Bros.

Hilda Strafford. By Beatrice Harraden. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Thirty Strange Stories. By H. G. Wells. Edward Arnold.

Soldiers of Fortune. By Richard Harding Davis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Alan Ransford. By Ellen Douglas Deland. Harper & Bros.

The Meddling Hussy. By Clinton Ross. Stone & Kimball.

"Bobbo," and Other Fancies. By Thomas Wharton. Harper & Bros.

Chronicles of a Kentucky Settlement. By William Courtney Watts. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

If the kaleidoscopic quality of Jokai's genius has sometimes made his fiction too fantastic to hold the interest, it at least gives to his historical novels a mighty life, variety, and rushing motion. Certainly the story of 'The Green Book' is one to cure deafness like *Prospero's* tale. 'The Green Book' was a list of the members of the far-reaching conspiracy for freedom in Russia in 1825. It was kept in a roulette-table in a secluded room at the house of the beautiful Finnish prima donna, Ilmarinen, in St. Petersburg. When the conspirators were in session, the table was open and the book in evidence. If danger threatened, in the approach of an outsider, the outer door through which he came by its own motion slid the cover back over the table, concealing the book and warning the plotters, so that the uninitiated entered to find only a busy party playing roulette. Around the table sat many historic persons. Sometimes Pushkin the poet was present, and Turgeneff the historian, with nobles of Poland and even Russia conspiring for freedom with the people against the Tsar. The history of this, the last year of the reign of Alexander I., is a thrilling one even without the airy touch of Jokai's pen to give it dramatic embellishment. The great conspiracy and the

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inundation of the Neva are the two historic events on which the novelist has draped his brilliant fabric of minor history, of plots, loves, terrors, even interweaving some threads of amusement. The translation is spirited, with an occasional lapse into ungrammatic English.

Mr. Crawford's novels rise and flow with a frequency and abundance and irrepressibility that recall the principal rivers of Europe and Asia, as recited in the school-days of an earlier generation. So, too, in the movement of each novel by itself: no hesitancy or friction stays the swift current of the ample stream; no snag gives pause; in ceaseless movement the flood of narration pours itself along. Never tired itself, it is yet sometimes the cause of being tired in others. Why not one volume rather than two? In the case of 'Taquisara' particularly, why not, since each volume is a complete and separate story? Each is full of Italian mysteries and terrors; and perhaps herein lies the explanation of the feebleness of the novel. Mr. Crawford knows his Italy too well. Under the spell of that familiarity which breeds a contemptuous attitude, he treats poison as only an episode, secret crime as a curtain-lifter. Perhaps, too, he commands the literary situation something too securely, and therefore pauses lingeringly to twaddle over intrigue, and babble over tragedy, with the prodigality of a pen that knows neither haste nor rest. There are two main situations in 'Taquisara.' In the one, a cat takes the poison meant for the heroine; in the other, the episode of the cat is, as it were, translated into humanity, and an accidental handclasp nearly marries the heroine to the right man instead of the wrong one. The third leading incident of the tale, the making a priest who is not a priest into a real priest without letting any one know, by suddenly giving a bishop's consecrating power to a third priest, with strict injunctions not to tell any one but the penitent and the Pope, seems quite like one of Gilbert's masterpieces.

In 'A Rose of Yesterday,' too (limited to one volume, however), the work of padding is at its deadliest height, the super-facile pen flinging off essay after essay, with which are interlarded a certain number of incidents. The Rose of Yesterday was a lady whose husband beat her; he also beat his son into idiocy, but left him one noble instinct—that of saving life, which induced the idiot to end his days as member of a life-saving station. The humorous touches in the book are almost more gloomy than the idiot episode. The hero is a fine, soldierly gentleman; the essays are upon the letter-writing bacillus, upon the tragic import of the slit in lamp-post boxes, upon youth, upon the real and the ideal, upon civilization, upon love, upon divorce. Some are good, and some already in 'Taquisara' dwell, and some leave us rather at sea. The Athenian of old criticised the physician who practised without science, but discoursed in the language of philosophy: "Foolish fellow, you are not healing the sick man, but you are educating him, and he does not want to be made a doctor, but to get well." Of Mr. Crawford we do not desire homilies, but a novel.

Anent 'Corleone' we will not quarrel with Mr. Crawford for his two volumes, nor accuse him of giving us essays instead of a story. A few discourses there are, but mainly bearing on the matter in hand. Story there is in abundance and in coherence, and not, as we have just complained, a series of disasters strung but not connected on a thread of irrelevant preaching. 'Corleone' is a story of love and bloodshed, of which all the curdle and intrigue are met in a real plot which thickens to the heart's desire as the narrative proceeds. It absorbs the reader in the good old-fashioned way with its rising and accumulating action and event. The Saracinesca family, with its descendants and branches, it is pleasant to meet again; and the Sicilian family, the Corleone, who lend the book its shadows, open the way for a deeply interesting picture of life in Sicily, and, even more than the life, of the national spirit which makes the extinction of brigandage not so much an impossibility as a contradiction in terms. It is, explains Mr. Crawford, "not a profession," but "the occasional but inevitable result of the national character under certain conditions which are sure to renew themselves from time to time." So, too, the mafia. "It is not a man. The mafia is the Sicilian character—Sicilian honor, Sicilian principles. It is an idea, not an institution." A revealing light is thus thrown on the difficulties in the way of governing Sicily, while yet the Sicilian sense of honor and of community of cause has much to command admiration. Nor is this lesson of the nations so imparted as to spoil a story; it stands in a just proportion to the persons of the drama, forwarding, not clogging, their fortunes and the phases of their character. Mr. Crawford, as in a former happy day, is to be congratulated upon and thanked for a thoroughly interesting, well-made, well-written novel.

Faint welcome awaits the compositions of undergraduates as general literature, however deeply the relatives of the writers may be interested in their amiable attempts at presenting scenes in "the human comedy of a co-educational college between the Missouri and the Mississippi." The hope, expressed in the prefatory note, that the collection of stories, 'On a Western Campus,' the production of the Junior Class of Iowa College, "may arouse attention, approval, and even somewhat of serious criticism," is destined, we should suppose, to be unfulfilled, so far as any public beyond the limits of Iowa College and its graduates is concerned. The stories are of four classes. As might be expected, the best are those which treat of athletics, the college student being naturally more at home in descriptions of races and ball-games than in "Portraits" or in tales "In Serious Vein" or those of "Co-education," which, according to the adage (not disproved by these stories), is the thief of time. If Juniors made the text, the illustrations must be the work of Sophomores.

A similar work is put forth by the Alumnæ and Students of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, in their volume of stories, wherein we find smoother writing and now and then an original idea. The preface states a belief that this is the first book of stories by medical women. But why should medical women, in groups and as such, write stories? Do figs grow on thistles or novelists in hospitals? The best two of the collection, 'The Genius Maker" and "A Pyscho-Physical Study," are clever magazine studies, and one or two of the others give glimpses, not uninteresting, of the ways of life among medical students. For the most part, however, a surfeit of crudity reigns, and suggests alarming questions as to the specialization of story-books of the future. What is to protect us from "Love among the Roses—A Bouquet of Short Love-Stories by Landscape Gardeners," "Out of the Depths—Sketches by Associated Clamdiggers," or "Hocks and Fetlocks: A volume by the Undergraduates of a Veterinary College"? Meantime, our course is to remember, with Burke, that "we must bear with inconveniences till they fester into crimes."

It is pleasant to turn to a real story by a real story-writer. Such is 'My Lord Duke,' by E. W. Hornung, whose other books have already proved, as Dr. Van Dyke's Highlander said, "ferry comforting whatever to the congregation." They are not to be called great; they are not purposeful; they are stories pure and simple, excellently constructed, well written, cleanly, humorous, kindly. The improbabilities, if not invariably convincing, are never irritating. The plot is always well managed, the telling of it lively, with no waste of irrelevant episode, and the untying is sure to be left to the last. Withal, the air of the bush is over all. There is plenty of oxygen and good sense, and no self-consciousness. 'My Lord Duke' is no exception to these general traits of merit, but its story is its own, both in plot and in characterization. It is a capital little novel.

Also adventurous, and unlikely also, is 'The Great K. and A. Train Robbery' of Mr. Ford; but a story which is well-nigh impossible is its own defence from the charge of improbability. Interest or the lack of it is the main point, and this story is lively and amusing and swift-moving enough to justify its own being.

Mr. Riccardo Stephens's earlier novel, 'The Cruciform Mark,' was far from dull, but much too long. We regret that in 'Mr. Peters' he has so misapplied his amendments as to leave his book both long and dull. It opens with an extremely graphic account of the lynching, in an American town, of a Swiss-Italian falsely accused of horse-stealing. This part, given as a prologue, is well done, and rouses expectation of something powerful; but the novel proper, the story of the revenge of the martyr's son in Edinburgh, after many years, is intolerably spun out. His revenge is so simple that there is not enough material in it for a fat four-hundred-page novel, so that it must needs be puffed out with a variety of unamusing devices—lodging-house amenities, tobacco-advertising poetry, bicycle adventure, and mooncalf courtships, a tenth part of each of which might have passed muster and not have left the reader lamenting. It is a disappointment, for the author's ability is through all discernible.

Miss Harraden's tale is a study of nostalgia, and a suggestive one, particularly to the Great British about to emigrate to Southern California. Her advice is not that of *Punch*, but it may well and wisely give pause to him (and especially to her) who expects Paradise in going to raise lemons in the New World. Her description of the double face of the landscape—that is, of its dismalness and its charm—is unlike any other we have read. We take this to be, not that her facts are seven miles from a lemon-grove, but that the usual written description is that of the winter enthusiast, without let or hindrance. In hers one keenly feels how

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the absence of grass and great trees in the brown, dry summer would oppress the heart long used to the deep, leafy lanes of England. It is an expressive little study, not lacking Miss Harraden's characteristics of straightforwardness and distinctness, with the inevitable final touch of pathos pointing to the incompleteness of moral destinies.

Mr. Wells's 'Thirty Strange Stories' are uncommonly clever. Whether he writes scientific fairy tales (and these form the larger number of the collection) or scenes of perturbed domesticity, there is a clearness and at the same time a lightness of treatment that do not always go together, and that contribute conspicuously to the perfection of the short story. Details of aerial navigation, of blood-eating orchids, of prehistoric birds and fishes miraculously rediscovered, of age and youth exchanging personality, of seeing round the globe, and of diving to the bottom of the sea, are given with such technical minuteness that we fully accept the wonders for the time. With equal skill the author satirizes the inconstant man of letters, the drama-ridden critic, the scalp-hunter, male and female, in sketches healthfully stinging. Altogether a rare quantity and quality of invention and imagination are to be found between the covers of Mr. Wells's volume, and though many of the thirty stories are gruesome, for the stout of nerve they will furnish excellent entertainment.

It is almost a relief to have Mr. Richard Harding Davis's hero misplace his "wills" and "shalls," because in every other respect he is such an incomparable conqueror that the ordinary human eye falls, dazzled, before his radiance. However, with practice a cat may look at a king, and we poor mortals, when used to the light, find this sovereign gentleman a pleasant one to gaze upon. If there are in real life few such paragons, more's the pity. There is a deal of entertaining engineering and geography in the book, culminating in a brisk account of a South American revolution, in which all the characters in the story figure, having arrived from Fifth Avenue just in time, in their yachts and by train, like the second act of a society drama. The hero's attitudes towards the two heroines are visibly affected by the atmosphere of revolution, and his hypersensitiveness as to whether he is loved as man or as engineer is harder to follow than even his military exploits from the Nile to Peru via Zanzibar. Some men are satisfied if their Dulcineas smile upon them without subjecting the smiles to an X-ray. But Robert Clay was different, and, wishing to be beloved as an engineer, he told a charming woman that it was as little satisfaction to him to have her like him personally as to a woman to be congratulated on her beauty. No wonder that it was "some short time" before the beauty replied. There is, notwithstanding, no morbid strain in the book. Horses, hoydens, and boys impart wholesome cheer, and South America contributes a bright landscape. For clean stories of adventure and love, with no dull word, readers must ever be thankful.

Ellen Douglas Deland's 'Alan Ransford' is a story for girls with a novelesque ending. The children are good and naughty by turns. The parents are mild and non-combative under great provocation. The story will please and not hurt the children, but we should be afraid that parents might, by the examples of extreme parental acquiescence, be led into mischief.

'The Meddling Hussy,' being "Fourteen Tales Retold," does credit to Mr. Ross's talent and to his sense of the picturesque in history. The tales of the American wars are perhaps the best in the book, and give, of several American episodes in history, a dramatic, first-person-singular view, such as Hope, Weyman, and their ilk have long since made familiar. Mr. Ross further seasons his Hope and Weyman with tincture of Stevenson, thus lapsing into phrasing which sounds forced and is tiresome. "Saddish" from the lips of Mary Queen of Scots makes us want to call Mr. Ross baddish if not beamish. A path "densened" by the rain is the path of transgression surely; "remonstranceful" is a hard saying; "the way fell a bit hilly and rutty" jars upon the love of simplicity. So do "the scurrying wet bit our faces brutishly," "we followed with some amazement that the burning log seemed to give out no warmth," "the mouth *put* the expression of this gentleman's face." Be it repeated, to return to the merits of these stories, that they are full of manly stir and lustrous reality, and that it is where Mr. Ross trusts to himself that he is best.

Noteworthy, indeed, are the sketches in prose and verse of Thomas Wharton. Owen Wister's charming preface prepares one for an unusual quality in the stories, and, after reading them, one rereads the preface for the satisfaction of full and conscious agreement. "He belonged," says Mr. Wister, "to the rare tribe that writes *fabliaux*"; and, again, "His talent did not by nature wear modern dress, but moved fancifully in costume." This characterization is no less true than graceful. Such delicately original work we have not lately seen; so airily, fairily firm, so mediævally modern, so romantically humorous. To become acquainted with it is to share the regret expressed in Mr. Wister's tender lament that his friend's work is ended.

'Chronicles of a Kentucky Settlement' were begun, their author says in his preface, as sketches for his family, and grew through his own interest and familiarity with his subject, as such sketches will, to their present somewhat over-ample proportions. Now, romance is something of a stumbling-block in the way of the family-tree and the recollections of the pioneer. There are very interesting facts at the command of the writer, relating to early Kentucky history, which, in our judgment, would have been more interestingly presented if they had not been made into a novel—at any rate, into a novel of nearly 500 pages. The style, notwithstanding localisms, has a certain old-fashioned flow and form well suited to the history of a bygone day, and it was a day of romance and picturesque adventure.

Philip II. of Spain. By Martin A. S. Hume. The Macmillan Company. 1897.

The modern historian finds in Philip II. a repugnant, yet an alluring, subject. His political methods shock the conscience and discourage, in the case of the general reader, any proper judgment of personal motive or public policy. On the other hand, the catastrophes of his reign invite sympathy, and he has been misrepresented. Speaking from the standpoint of the modern historian, to whom we are bound to ascribe the virtues of erudition and fairness, the difficulty may be put thus: How can one clear away the misrepresentations without appearing to be a champion? How can one reach the truth without appearing to condone those breaches of the moral law which remain when the rubbish has been carted off? The answer may be that, after Philip has been credited with the amount due him on the score of false accusation, he is still hopelessly bankrupt in character. But there is a further stumbling-block. This patron of the Holy Office, this slayer of Montigny, this religious politician, was also beyond doubt a man of conviction. Mr. Hume's happy phrase is, that he regarded himself as "in some sort a junior partner with Providence." How much allowance shall be made on this head when we come to pass judgment? Altogether it is a hard case, unless the writer be a Spaniard of sound Catholicity. The Dutchman, the Frenchman, the Englishman, must admit that Philip was not exactly a commonplace devil, a sort of sixteenth-century Santa Cruz or Carrier. Still, do one's best for him, he remains sinister and forbidding. Enthusiasm is out of the question. The attractiveness of the theme arises from the vast scale of the issues and from the scope which it affords both to psychological ingenuity and to mythicide.

M. Mariéjol, in publishing two years ago a just epitome of Philip's work, avows that the current tendency is towards lenience: "Sans doute, il faut résister à la tentation de le réhabiliter." Mr. Hume is on his guard, too. When one understands fully, whatever may be one's censure, the vindictive note is rarely heard. Mr. Hume is not blind to cruelty, and comes out strongly with the fact, *e. g.*, in connection with Carranza, that the Inquisition was a political tool even more than a means of destroying heresy. He recognizes the part played by political assassination under Philip's system—for instance, in the case of Escobedo. But he casts a pall of sadness over king and reign so dense that anger is forgotten. The tainted blood, the education in distrust, the futile toil, the growing melancholy, the patience under disaster, are made more vividly clear than the practices which stirred Motley's soul. Philip was at vespers when word came that Don Juan had destroyed the Turkish fleet at Lepanto. He "did not move a muscle when he heard the stirring news." Able to hear tidings of victory with perfect composure, he could sustain loss without flinching. "There was no defeat for such a man as this; and he could afford to be generous and magnanimous, as he was, to the men whose shortcomings were the immediate cause of the great catastrophe which ruined the power of the nation, but could not break the faith or spirit of a man who regarded himself as the fly-wheel of the machine by which the Almighty worked the earth."

Mr. Hume, whose authority is particularly strong on the relations of England with Spain, traces to a French source the panic which seized London in January, 1554, when Egmont came in state to offer Philip's hand to Mary. Charles V. was smarting under the loss of Metz, and wished to regain his prestige by a diplomatic triumph. The negotiations, at first carried on through Renard, came to the ear of the French Ambassador, Noailles. He was instructed to stop the match, and received large sums to lay

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out in the right manner. Besides buying up individual politicians, he launched rumors upon the public ear. "The hatred and prejudice aroused against Philip by Noailles for purely political reasons in 1553 have left an abundant crop of prejudice even to our own times." The Marian persecutions run back for their origin, not to Spanish influence, but to English Bishops like Bonner and Gardiner. Philip, of course, could persecute if he had an object. With regard to England, he rightly thought that strong measures were sure to defeat the end they sought to serve. Nevertheless, confusion was bound to arise on this point in the popular mind. Spain was known to be cruel. Philip was the Queen's beloved husband. The fires of Smithfield blazed. The fallacy of *post hoc ergo propter hoc* seldom has so plausible a foundation. Then in Elizabeth's reign came colonial rivalry, religious feud, and the Armada. "The Spaniards, it was said, were bringing cargoes of scourges and instruments of torture, all adults were to be put to death, and 7,000 wet-nurses were coming in the Armada to suckle the orphan infants. Such nonsense as this was firmly believed, and the echoes of it have not even yet entirely died out."

Mr. Hume's sketch of Philip II. is a volume in the "Foreign Statesmen" series. It is a model book of its kind; brief, competent, and accurate. We have encountered no errors of fact whatever, and only one misprint: p. 160, *Piala* (for Piali) Pasha. Mr. Hume's Anglo-Spanish studies of the sixteenth century are always good. So long as he maintains his past and present standard, his writings will deserve a cordial reception on this side of the Atlantic.

Nippur, or Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates: the Narrative of the University of Pennsylvania Expedition to Babylonia in the Years 1888-1890. By John Punnett Peters, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D., Director of the Expedition. With Illustrations and Maps. Vol. II. Second Campaign. Pp. x, 420. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

This volume follows the first (reviewed in these columns in July last), at no long interval. It falls naturally into several distinct portions. The first hundred pages describe the operations of the second year at Nippur; a hundred and sixty more are occupied with an account of the results of the excavations, concluding with an historical sketch of Nippur; the final hundred are mainly a story of travel in other parts of southern Babylonia. Plans, drawings, and photographs are freely used in illustration. Appendix A gives plates of objects found, with careful descriptions. Appendix B consists of the weather record at Nippur during the second season. An index to both volumes completes the work.

The second season was much more prosperous and successful than the first. After a short visit to Philadelphia, in the summer of 1889, to consult the committee of the Babylonian Exploration Fund, Dr. Peters returned to the field. Mr. J. H. Haynes and Mr. Noorian again accompanied him to Nippur. Dr. Selim Aftimus, a Syrian physician, did the same, but only to be stricken with fever which compelled his immediate return. The rest of the party, not without some hardships, continued through the season. It was during this stay that the real possibilities of Nippur were disclosed, and the selection of that particular mound for excavation brilliantly justified.

"Whereas the first year we had sent to Constantinople only four boxes, this year we were sending thirty-six, besides the coffin and the half-dozen door-sockets—over forty parcels in all, containing about eight to ten thousand inscribed tablets or fragments of tablets, and several hundred inscribed stones and stone fragments, among which were the oldest inscriptions theretofore discovered in Babylonia, or probably in the world" (p. 103).

The work of excavation extended from January 21 to May 3, 1890. At its conclusion Peters and Noorian made a tour to the southward, taking in the partially explored Tello-Sipurla, Ur-Mughair, Erech-Warka, and such untouched mounds as Bismya and Yokha. All of these still invite the spade, with good promise of rich returns. The narrative of this journey ends with interesting accounts of the sacred Mohammedan cities of Nejef and Kerbela. The concluding chapter of the book brings the explorers home.

The solid results of the expedition are described in the middle portion of the volume. In several chapters, illustrated by plans and drawings, the progress of the work is set forth and the chief discoveries are related. Most notable among these are the *ziggurat*—the artificial hill, in two stages, once surmounted by the dwelling-place of the god Bel, and surrounded by structures connected with worship—and the evidences gained by vertical shafts of the great age of Babylonian civilization. They do not enable us to speak definitely of years, or even centuries; the margin of uncertainty is still great, but as a result of discoveries, of which those at Nippur are for the present the crowning ones, it is no longer a wild improbability to speak of the foundation of that city as dating, perhaps, from 6,000 or 7,000 B. C. Results like this are of much greater consequence than the discovery of particular objects, however interesting these are. Nippur adds another to the sites which have been explored—partially, it is true, but scientifically—according to a careful plan, not mainly to stock museums with curious things, but to recover the history of a great population. Schliemann, Petrie, Bliss, Peters, and Haynes are honorable names in the roll of excavators who have thus excavated in the service of history. Their achievements will be more and more recognized by competent judges as of a far higher kind than those of mere curiosity seekers. They help to reconstruct, along broad and true lines, the life of the ancient world.

Within the great framework, of course, all attainable particulars have their place. Dr. Peters's chapter headed "Miscellaneous" reports the discovery of clay drains, phallic symbols, door-sockets bearing some of the finest inscriptions, and many other stone and metal objects. A large number of these are figured and described in the appendix. There is also a reference to the significance of the inscriptions from Nippur in relation to the origin and progress of the art of writing. What Friedrich Delitzsch has already done for the history of the cuneiform character on the basis of the inscriptions found by Peters and Haynes, and published by Hilprecht, is well known. The chapter on "Coffins and Burial Customs" is very instructive. Much other information, of the most varied description, is scattered through the book. The discovery of glass objects, dating from the 14th century B. C.; the reason proposed for the orientation of the ancient temple structures, with their angles towards the four points of the compass; the supposed evidence, from the weight of the door-sockets, for the employment of camels to carry them as early as 4,000 B. C.; the unearthing of Assyrian tablets (Ashurbanipal and his son in the seventh century B. C.)—these are a few of the incidental matters of interest, for which we must refer the reader to the book itself.

When it is considered that it was Dr. Peters who, of course after taking counsel with those whose opinion was worth having, chose Nippur as a site to excavate; that the misfortunes of the first season did not deter him from undertaking a second, nor occasion the withdrawal of the generous support of the committee at home; that the second season yielded such brilliant results; that the continuance of the work with adequate equipment, under Mr. Haynes, in subsequent years, was largely due to his persistent efforts and energy, and that he has followed the work with active interest in all its stages, putting his experience freely at the disposal of those who could make use of it—it will be apparent that Babylonian discovery owes no small debt to Dr. Peters. Mr. Haynes's account of his work will be eagerly welcomed. It illuminated and extended that of his predecessor, but that predecessor's work will remain entitled to the full measure of recognition and praise already accorded to it by those best able to appreciate its worth. We are glad to know that 'Nippur' has passed to a second edition. It is an evidence that wide circles value what Dr. Peters has done, and are attracted by the direct, manly way in which he describes how he did it.

American Contributions to Civilization, and Other Essays and Addresses. By Charles William Eliot. The Century Co. 1897.

Dr. Eliot's book consists of miscellaneous addresses and magazine articles written during the past twenty-five years. The reason of their being mainly social and political—a fact which at first strikes the reader with surprise—is explained in the preface; it is merely because the educational addresses and papers are reserved for another volume. There are, however, in this volume a good many passages relating to education, and one entire essay discusses the question "wherein popular education has failed." What is striking about the book, coming from the President of the oldest American university, is that his field of speculation and interest is so much larger than the mere field of education. Fifty years ago such a book would have been a narrow if not sectarian performance; to-day the essayist is no mere educator, but a man of the world, an administrator, the executive, representative head of a corporation so important, so closely connected with the life of the country, as to make him a public character; a man whose function it is to speak, not merely for Harvard University, but for the United States.

This Dr. Eliot does in this volume with a very representative and characteristic voice. Perhaps the best essay is the first, which attracted a good deal of attention when it was originally published. It is really polemical, though not contentious, in form; it is nothing more than an attempt to answer the question so often asked, What has America done for civilization? Dr. Eliot mentions five contributions—peace at home

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and arbitration abroad, religious toleration, universal suffrage, proof of the fitness of man for political freedom, and the diffusion of well-being, material, moral, and mental. The real force and pith of the essay, however, does not lie in these answers so much as in a most ingenious criticism of the Jingo philosophy which advocates war as a school of virtue and heroism. Those who, with this idea, would have this or any country kill a million men, and destroy thousands of millions of property, make millions of wives widows and children fatherless, and let loose famine and panic on every side, he very neatly compares to those who "would set a city on fire in order to give opportunities for heroism to firemen," or introduce cholera or yellow fever in order to give physicians and nurses an opportunity of displaying disinterested devotion. This is a fatal criticism; it cuts the ground from under the feet of the philosophical Jingo, and is itself a contribution to civilization.

Dr. Eliot is a pronounced optimist, but it is precisely in this particular that we see how representative he is. Right or wrong, the wide diffusion of material well-being which he considers one of the five chief American contributions to civilization, tends to make Americans optimistic, just as the oppressive character of the struggle for existence in Europe tends to make Europeans more or less pessimistic. Such, at least, has been the case, speaking generally, for two generations. This optimism is incarnated in Dr. Eliot, and breathes lustily in every word he utters, and it is curiously illustrated in an address on "The Happy Life," delivered at Baltimore two years ago. The address is full of good advice on the conduct of life, but the determination with which the author minimizes the everlasting misery of the world, and makes the enjoyment of life an affair of the individual will, would make a pessimist foam at the mouth. Referring to the "highly speculative opinion" that external nature offsets every good with an evil, and that whatever purpose may run through Nature, we have no key to it, he replies that all science teaches us that knowledge is progressive, and the discovered is as nothing compared with the undiscovered. People cannot, they complain, discern the moral purpose of the universe. "Why," says Dr. Eliot in reply, "should they discern it?" A lawyer would criticize this as "not responsive"; but an optimist is logical only when he chooses to be so. He is not merely a critic, but a practical adviser, and he only obeys the law of his being when he meets a fatal objection by advising the sufferer to think about something else. Indeed, the author even goes so far as to suggest that happiness may be advanced by a "judicious selection of beliefs." Here he takes the clerical view, so commonly advanced nowadays, that as we really know little or nothing about life, and everything is entirely uncertain, the sensible thing for us to do is to believe what will make us happy. To this, of course, the agnostic would reply: How can I select a belief as to matters with regard to which I have no grounds for forming one? But such advice is not really addressed to agnostics; it is addressed to those who do not discriminate between hoping and believing, and to whom happiness is more important than truth. After all, what is Truth, that we should worship it and make it an end in itself? We can make no advances in knowledge without devotion to truth, but knowledge does not make us happy. Truth is in fact an ideal, while happiness is the only reality. Yet this would lead to a profession of faith which the author would be very much averse to selecting.

Industrial Freedom. By David Macgregor Means. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. Pp. ix, 248, 8vo.

The impossibility of equalizing the distribution of individual property, or, more specifically, of raising the real wages of free laborers at the expense of their employers' profits, by any legal machinery which shall not at the same time impair the incentive to industry and thus check the prosperity of society as a whole—this is the main thesis of Mr. Means's vigorous book. He contends that the efforts of the owners of capital to increase their total profits—a term which he uses, as Adam Smith did, to include interest—have led in the past to a gradual decrease in the rate of profits and to a gradual increase in the rate of wages. This tendency is likely to continue, but any attempt, in the supposed interest of laborers, to reduce the rate of profit by law more rapidly than, under industrial freedom, it will, in fact, be reduced by competition, is likely to discourage saving, and, by thus reducing the number of competing capitals, to check the process upon which the increase of wages ultimately depends. This general idea is familiar, but the author illuminates it with a wealth of fresh and apposite illustration, and applies it with ingenuity and force to many current "labor arguments." Especially noteworthy is his patient examination of the popular delusion which attributes to the mere corporate form of managing business a peculiar power of reducing wages below what individual employers would pay for like service.

Mr. Means's general conclusions are so reassuring in the face of much loose socialism and semi-socialism that it would be pleasant to find them supported by arguments as universally convincing in matter as they are entirely admirable in manner. But it is not clear that the conclusions are always so supported. The author does, indeed, make an obvious effort, throughout his book, to state fairly both sides of each question discussed. But in each case the emphasis of his discussion gradually accumulates upon one side with a weight which finally preponderates the other, and it thus becomes his conclusion. Now his may be in each case the right emphasis, and in general we believe that it is right; but what will be its effect upon the reader who at the outset believes otherwise? If open to conviction, he might be convinced by an enumeration of ascertained facts adequate to justify the author in placing his emphasis just where he has chosen to lay it. In the absence of such an array of facts, the reader is likely, as it were, to rewrite the book in accordance with his own prepossessions, reversing many of the author's conclusions by a simple shifting of the emphasis in the discussions which lead up to them. In other words, the problem with which Mr. Means deals, like most economic problems, can be solved, if at all, only by a quantitative determination of conflicting factors; and to those who differ from him Mr. Means will appear, as do most economists, to determine the relative magnitude of the various factors by a process largely subjective.

An Historical Greek Grammar, chiefly of the Attic Dialect as written and spoken from classical antiquity down to the present time. By A. N. Jannaris. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

This massive volume (737 pp.), by the lecturer on post-classical and modern Greek in the University of St. Andrews, is a monument of industry and scholarship, which will naturally attract few readers save specialists in dialect and syntax. When, therefore, Mr. Jannaris, with elegant modesty, informs us, in his preface (p. xi), that his work is intended, "not for specialists, but for the wider class of classical students, including clergymen, who would gladly have their memory refreshed by a summary repetition of half-forgotten details," he is making one of his few mistakes, and we are happy to state that his grasp greatly exceeds his reach. Why he should thus quixotically devote his profound and luminous scholarship to polishing the rusty accidence of the country vicarage, we are at a loss to imagine. The few though fit specialists who will find this grammar a mine of information in several branches of philological study, have good cause to regret that Mr. Jannaris did not decide to reduce the size of his book, and incidentally its price, by the omission of those elementary facts of accidence for which the clergy may well be referred to their half-forgotten Eton Grammar.

The author's main object is to show how much of ancient Greek survives in modern Greek, and how much has become extinct, with the how, why, and when of the losses and changes. This is a task that only a native Greek, who was himself a classical scholar, such as Hatzidakis, or Sophocles, or Jannaris himself, could undertake. Mr. Jannaris has too much of the scientific spirit of scholarship to be a partisan, and, while his treatment naturally brings out the numerous similarities between ancient and modern Greek, he nowhere gives the impression that he is holding a brief for the latter. He has limited himself to the Greek which has been evolved out of the Attic dialect—no narrow field, since, to use his own words, "the entire Greek language, from its 'classical' period down to the present time, forms an unbroken continuation of classical Attic." By modern Greek Mr. Jannaris means the living speech on the lips of the Greek nation of to-day, not the literary, partly revived Greek of Neo-Hellenic writers and journalists.

Of the three main divisions of the book into Phonology, Morphology, and Syntax, it is the first and the third that are of most interest to scholars. Under phonology Mr. Jannaris discusses the question of the pronunciation of ancient Greek, and gives his reasons for renouncing the Erasmian method, to which he was, for a period, converted. We have not space to comment here on several new terms which must be mastered before one can use the book with ease; of these, "antectasis" for "compensatory lengthening," and "phonopathy" for Max Müller's "phonetic decay," commend themselves. The term "secondary subjunctive," in favor of which Mr. Jannaris would oust the familiar "optative," is a less happy innovation. We see no advantage whatever in calling the pure optative of wish the "de-

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siderative secondary subjunctive," or the present optative the "imperfect subjunctive." The notation employed is, at first, bewildering. We are asked to remember that (± XIV$^{th}_{c.}$ †) stands for circ. 1400 A. D. and a simple reference appears as (05^{b} ff. .020 [z] & 20).

In his argument for the early use of writing in Greece Mr. Jannaris ignores modern theories so far as to speak, without qualification, of the σήματα λυγρὰ—the tokens of woe—of the sixth book of the 'Iliad' as "a direct mention in the 'Iliad' of writing" (p. 22). It would be impossible to discuss here all the minor points on which Mr. Jannaris differs from orthodox grammarians. He is inclined to doubt the occurrence of the future optative in classical Greek, and would regard its presence in our MSS. as due to the innovations of later copyists (p. 452). He would not hesitate to read ἦ for εἰ in all cases in the New Testament where εἰ occurs as a direct interrogative particle, and would restore ἦ μὴν for ἀμὴν in all cases where the latter opens an assertion, *e. g.*, ἀμὴν λέγω ὑμῖν. Here again he holds the copyists responsible. Let New Testament scholars see to it; classical scholars, we imagine, will be slow to assent to his unqualified assertion that in all cases of οὐ μή with the subjunctive and future indicative they should cut the knot that Mr. Goodwin labored to untie and read οὐ μήν, which has been corrupted by the copyists to μή! Few will be found equal to this act of faith. Mr. Jannaris is so confident that his is the true explanation that he devotes only half a page to this important construction, and practically confines himself to the bare statement that, "as a matter of fact, μή in this complex stands for μήν, or rather is a corruption of μήν" (p. 433). He does not discuss the opposed theories, but is content with remarking that "οὐ μή cannot be reduced to any principle of the language." Some obvious objections to his theory which he omits to mention are (1) the fact that, in several cases, οὐ and μή are separated by several words, *c. g.*, Soph. Aj. 560 or El. 1029. (2) Prodelision occurs in verse, which puts μήν out of the question in such passages as Soph. Trach. 978, and Ar. Pax. 1302. (3) The μήν theory would introduce into classical Greek a large number of subjunctives used "prospectively in the room of the future indicative" on the model of the Homeric instances. Mr. Jannaris accepts this consequence, again without comment (p. 449), and does not feel bound to explain why they are all negative. Here is another heroic proposal which may serve the clergy as a counsel of perfection. The "Recension of Peisistratos" is a favorite field of exercise with Homeric critics. Mr. Jannaris offers a perfectly new solution of the problem. His argument runs as follows: We hear of Peisistratos in connection with Homer. It is universally admitted that he did not institute a collection, redaction, or edition. But he certainly did something. "So we hear that he appointed a commission of scholars . . . with instructions to draw up a rational and practicable system of normal spelling calculated to facilitate the reading at school of the national or standard texts. . . . It is this orthographic normalization for school purposes that is alluded to . . . by Cicero" (p. 530). Mr. Jannaris then quotes the well-known *primus Homeri libros confusos antea sic disposuisse dicitur*, etc., in support of his argument. Surely if it is to be used as evidence at all, it tells against him. The *vox totius antiquitatis* is dumb before such dogmatism.

The appendices contain much important matter. That on Accent, in which Mr. Jannaris attempts to justify his belief in stress accent for both Greek and Sanskrit, is especially interesting.

In a first edition of such a work some inaccuracies were perhaps unavoidable. On p. 429 it would have been better to make a separate class of cases in classical Greek of the use of οὐ in the protasis of a conditional sentence such as Soph. Aj. 1131. This Mr. Jannaris regards as the classical prototype of εἰ οὐ in such writers as Aristides and Aelian. The difference, of course, is that in the Sophoclean passage οὐ affects a single word, whereas in post-classical Greek it negatives the whole clause. It is not true that classical Greek "admitted only the infinitival construction after οἶομαι and νομίζω (p. 571). In Xen. Hell., V. 4. 62, we find νομίσαντες ὅτι, and οἶμαι τοῦτο ὅτι occurs in Protag. 345 D. in what Mr. Gildersleeve calls "a case of especial temptation." The book is remarkably free from proof-reader's errors. We have noted the following: P. 410 mid., for "hew" read "new"; p. 459. footnote, for "particles" read "participles; p. 485, for "rquiring" read "requiring." We hardly think that Mr. Jannaris really means that καί connects words "in a free and easy manner" (p. 401); "stylish composition" (p. 564) is another slip of the same kind; in the phrase, "Each of these moods was of its own an exponent" (p. 552), there seems to be a lapse into French idiom. The admirable indices, covering 156 pp., add greatly to the value of the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, T. D., and Clark, J. W. Cambridge Described and Illustrated. Macmillan. $7.
Bailey, L. H. Lessons with Plants. Macmillan.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Immortal Hymns and Their Story. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. $3.
Barrows, Rev. J. H. A World-Pilgrimage. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.
Bryant, Sophie. The Teaching of Morality in the Family and the School. [The Ethical Library.] London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Carruth, Prof. W. H. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Macmillan. 50c.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Principles of English Grammar. Macmillan. 75c.
Converted Catholic. Vol. XIV. New York: James A. O'Connor.
Dickens, Charles. Old Lamps for New Ones, and Other Sketches and Essays. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.
Du Maurier, George. A Legend of Camelot. Pictures and Poems. Harpers.
Durand, E. D. The Finances of New York City. Macmillan. $2.
Encyclopædia of Sport. Vol. I., A—Leo. Putnams. $10.
Falklands. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
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Gordy, W. F. A History of the United States for Schools. Scribners. $1.
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Hillis, N. D. The Investment of Influence. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Hooper, George. The Campaign of Sedan. New ed. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Huntington, Rev. W. R. A National Church. Scribners. $1.
Kodak Portfolio. Rochester: Eastman Co.
Luttgen, F. W. A Sound, Honest, True, and Stable Money. New York: The Author. $2.50.
MacDonald, Prof. William. Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States, 1776-1861. Macmillan. $2.25.
Newcomb, Florence D. The Carnival of Venice, and Other Poems. F. T. Neely.
Norman, J. H. Universal Cambist. London: Effingham Wilson; New York: Putnams. $3.
Penn, Rachel. A Son of Israel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Poetical Works of John Milton. [Apollo Poets.] Whittaker. $1.75.
Poetical Works of Robert Burns. [Apollo Poets.] Whittaker. $1.75.
Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. [Apollo Poets.] Whittaker. $1.75.
Pollard, A. F. Political Pamphlets. [The Pamphlet Library.] Henry Holt & Co.
Porter, Rose. Shakspere's Men and Women. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Rawle, Francis. Bouvier's Law Dictionary. Revised and brought up to date. Vol. I. Boston: Boston Book Co. $6.
Rhys, Ernest. Literary Pamphlets, Chiefly relating to Poetry. [The Pamphlet Library.] 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co.
Speyers, Prof. C. L. Text-Book of Physical Chemistry. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.25.
Stall, Rev. Sylvanus. What a Young Man Ought to Know. Philadelphia: Vir Publishing Co. $1.
Stead, W. T. Satan's Invisible World Displayed. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Stillman, W. J. The Old Rome and the New, and Other Essays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Stirling, J. H. The Secret of Hegel. New ed. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd; New York: Putnams. $5.
Students' Standard Dictionary. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
St. Nicholas. 1897. 2 vols. Century Co.
Tarr, Prof. R. S. Suggestions for Laboratory and Field Work in High School Geology. Macmillan. 25c.
Thorpe, Prof. T. E. A Manual of Inorganic Chemistry. New ed. 2 vols. London: William Collins, Sons & Co.; New York: Putnams. $4.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. X. Hurons: 1636. Vol. XI. Hurons and Quebec: 1636-1637. Vol. XII. Quebec: 1637. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Vlymen, W. T. First Reading Book. Second Reading Book. [Columbus Series.] Catholic School Book Co.
Warfield, Prof. B. B. The Significance of the Westminster Standards as a Creed. Scribners. 75c.
Waring, Col. G. E., jr. Street-Cleaning. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.25.
Whitby, Beatrice. Sunset. Appletons. $1.
Woodhouse, W. J. Aetolia: its Geography, Topography, and Antiquities. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
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